

The Catholic Educational Review

JUNE, 1934

CATHOLIC EDUCATION IN A CHANGING WORLD¹

These are days when the right to life of all our institutions is being called into question. Our industrial undertakings, our business houses, our departments of Government, our transportation facilities—all are being revaluated under the searchlight of economic depression.

The very important field of education, from kindergarten to college and university, has been no exception to the rule. The most rigid scrutiny is being made of our system of public education; drastic curtailments have been suggested, and, in many cases, these curtailments have actually been adopted. It is hardly necessary for me to point out that while on the one hand we have the educators of the nation voicing their objections to any curtailment whatsoever in the structure of education, on the other hand we have the legislators and politicians, faced with the necessity of economy in public expenditures, turning to the hitherto inviolate educational appropriations in order to effect reductions. In justifying their actions they have not hesitated to condemn, in no uncertain language, what they are pleased to term the fads and the fancies, and the useless expenditures for public education. Between these two groups we have the general public, now pulled this way and now that way by the opposing arguments.

There is no doubt that our system of public education has been seriously endangered by the inability to raise school funds through the ordinary means of taxation. This, as you are well aware, has resulted in real hardship in many sections of the country, due to the unpaid salaries of teachers and to the actual closing of the schools, particularly in the rural districts. The private

¹Address delivered before the Catholic Educational Association of Pennsylvania, on April 27th, 1934, at the General Session of the Fifteenth Annual Convention, held in Philadelphia.

schools and the colleges, both state-supported as well as privately endowed, have been having their troubles. There is a real crisis in education. This crisis has been the theme for many meetings and conventions. But what of the situation as it affects Catholic education? On the surface, we seem to be faring better than public education, but actually this is only on the surface.

There is no need to tell members of an organization such as ours that greater sacrifices than the world can imagine are being made to maintain our schools. It may be a source of wonder to our non-Catholic neighbors that Catholic schools of this state and of other states are able to carry on their work, depending as they do, for the most part, upon the voluntary contributions of the faithful. All that they know is that Catholic schools are carrying on, and that very few of them have actually closed their doors, although thousands of public schools have done so. But our sisterhoods and brotherhoods and clergy know the secret of the ability of our Catholic schools to carry on. They know that our Catholic Sisters and Brothers teaching in schools have been forced to forego the mere pittance which they have been accustomed to receive in the past in the form of a stipend for their services. It is upon such sacrifices, sacrifices that are never mentioned in the public press, and are unknown to the general public, that our schools have been able to keep open.

I have mentioned briefly the difficulty and the sacrifices involved in the keeping up of our Catholic schools during the depression. But long after these difficulties and sacrifices and the depression itself shall have faded from memory, I am firmly convinced that other educational considerations now linked up with it will linger long in our minds. There are trends in education today, mere rumblings in the distance, if you will, which have much in them of weal or woe for Catholic education in the future, depending upon the degree of our ~~present~~ awareness and of the alertness with which we anticipate and meet these ~~trends~~. We are in the beginning, if not already in the midst, of a real crisis in Catholic education, and financial difficulty is but a minor element. Comparatively speaking, our American education is in its youth. Our standards of values in education, our measures of attainment, are altogether unknown and unthinkable to the older systems of European education. Just as it is the part of youth to build strong and healthy bodies, to be rather

unstable in ideas and thoughts, to tend to place greater emphasis on the least important elements in life, so youthful education in America evidenced these same traits. But there are signs that point very clearly today to the fact that American education has come of age and is now beginning to settle down to the more serious business of a thoughtful and stable intellectual life. Catholic education in the United States is no exception to the general rule, although it has a splendid heritage from other and older countries. We may talk as much as we please about the superiority of Catholic education, we may hearken back to the rich traditions of a centuries old philosophy of Catholic education, but let us be on our guard lest these be rationalizations to cloak over the reality. We can no more hope completely to isolate Catholic education from the prevailing educational trends of our country than we can hope completely to isolate our Catholic men and women from the prevailing trends of the day. It is therefore our duty to be thoroughly alive to what is going on in the educational world about us that we may always endeavor to be in the forefront rather than content to trail along behind. Education has been largely materialistic in its trend for the past quarter of a century. This has been reflected in the laying down of quantitative standards as norms whereby to appraise educative efficiency and to measure its results. Rigid entrance requirements, fixed regulations for equipment, minimum requirements for teacher preparation, a minimum number of credits for degrees—all these things have been urged with almost fanatical insistence by American educators. As Catholic educators we have been hard pressed to keep up with the procession. We have struggled and strained to catch up with the vanguard and have heaved a sigh when we have crossed the line of minimum standards and have been received into the fraternity of accredited or approved institutions. One by one Catholic schools have succeeded in crossing the line of educational perfection, the stragglers are almost all in, and, as we pant for breath, there is grave danger that we may not notice that the leaders of the procession are off again in a new direction and the race is on before we can get our second wind. All this is of the nature of an allegory, but I hope to make my meaning clearer as my paper progresses.

The depression brought a changing attitude towards the methods and technique of education which is in its way a striking

justification of the traditional Catholic attitude of conservatism in the field of education. The statements that are being made day by day by experts in the field of education must certainly be read with amazement and also with a feeling of satisfaction by Catholic educators. Reforms in education are being suggested and are actually under way, and the future will undoubtedly see radical changes adopted. Catholic educators have much to thank God for in the changes that are already visible on the horizon, and also much to be fearful about. We have been conservative in educational theories and practice and do not have to rid ourselves of expensive fads and fancies that are now being decried by the very educators who had sponsored them. We have always held to the belief that the spiritual things of life count for more, last longer, and are of greater value to the nation as a whole than the material outlook that has been so characteristic of secular education in pre-depression days. We have always insisted that character training is an absolute essential to all true education, and that without religion there can be no vital training in character. As Catholic educators, we have raised our voices in public and private against the regimentation in education which has been forced upon us by standardizing bodies who have set up arbitrary quantitative standards and made these absolute requirements.

But now it seems that the arbiters of fashion in education are not satisfied with the results. Thus speaks Dr. Pritchett in a recent report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:

"The defects of the present system are obvious. The school becomes a cramming place, rather than an agency for training boys and girls to use their minds. The most deadening result is the intellectual insincerity of the process. In spite of fine buildings, of an extensive and ever growing list of studies, and of the mounting cost, the typical child reads and speaks his native tongue badly. His handwriting is slipshod and formless. His command of elementary mathematical reasoning is weak. He has not learned to read books."²

"We are caught in a vast machine, where the American passion to compete and the American genius for organization have run away with the fundamental purpose of the school system."

²"Is Education on the Right Track?" by Henry S. Pritchett, in the Twenty-eighth Annual Report of the President, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, p. 27.

The report goes on to state that some way must be found to get back to fundamentals in education, and concludes with this significant statement: "Such a transformation may save us from financial bankruptcy due to educational inflation."³

Now let me quote from a well-known college president, speaking before a meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

"Isn't the challenge in America today for a new standard and a better standard of values than we have had in these days of false prosperity? Isn't it true that perhaps in times of false prosperity the college itself and the school itself drifted away from the real things?"⁴ . . .

"I think none of us has fully realized the challenge which now has come to education, to set up a new set of values about what life actually is."⁵

This recognition of past mistakes in the field of education, this frank confession of failure to really educate children, to really train men and women for life under a quantitative system of standards, is most wholesome. The insistence upon details as to size of library, equipment, endowment, degrees, graduate study, courses in methods and in content matter, such regulations as to the size of the class, teacher loads and the total number of pupils that one teacher can handle, and the multitude of other things that are required by Departments of Education and standardizing agencies before schools will be recognized as efficient, is now to receive minor emphasis. Truly, the leaders in the procession are off in a new direction and the race is on again. But whither are we bound?

There is a very significant movement already under way in the Middle West, sponsored by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It is the result of a thorough and painstaking study which has been carried on quietly for the last few years, and which has been speeded up and brought to a conclusion as a result of the depression. I refer to the proposed plan for the revision of standards for higher institutions of learning. I believe that it will be worth our while to consider these pro-

³ *Ibid.*, p. 28.

⁴ "Intellectual Economies," by President Wm. Mather Lewis, Lafayette College, in an address before the Luncheon Session of the North Central Association Meeting, Chicago, Ill., April 22, 1933, as reported, the North Central Association Quarterly, Vol. VIII, No. 2, p. 230.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 231.

posals, even though they are being first put into effect in the states of the Middle West. For I have no hesitancy in predicting that they will be taken up and adopted by the standardizing agencies and Boards of Education throughout the country. It is true that these proposals affect the colleges and universities particularly, but they are unquestionably of interest to our secondary and primary schools as well. This change in the direction of the educational procession is very clearly an abandoning of the quantitative standards of the past and the substitution of qualitative standards for the future. Instead of minimum standards as a goal we are to have optimum standards. Instead of emphasis on the material side of education, we are now to stress the spiritual. This change of emphasis is going to affect the college level first, but it is bound to have its repercussions and reverberations down to the secondary and primary school levels as well.

The very nature of my subject requires that I cite my authorities. This time I quote from the report of a member of the Commission on the Revision of Standards:

"With time, however, we have learned (he says), sometimes to our sorrow and chagrin, that standards, no matter how painstakingly they have been prepared, do not always produce anticipated results."⁶ . . .

"We have learned that quantitative measures do not always produce the qualitative results we expected. We know, for example, that the number of books on the shelves is not nearly so important as are the uses made of the books; that the amount spent on laboratory equipment, is of far less consequence than the use that is made of the laboratory; that the usual facts about the teaching personnel are less significant than the extent to which teachers stimulate intellectual effort among their pupils.

"Furthermore (he goes on to say), we have learned that there are a number of things to which little or no attention has been given in the past. Such things, for example, as the quality of the administration and the intellectual temper that have an important bearing upon the effectiveness of the school. We are jolted out of our complacency by the knowledge that experience was not working as we predicted it would."⁷ . . .

"We used to think (says President Kent of the University of

⁶"A Summary and Interpretation of the Work of the Committee on Revision of Standards." L. D. Coffman, University of Minnesota, The North Central Association Quarterly, Vol. VIII, No. 2, p. 270.

⁷*Ibid.*, pp. 270, 271.

Louisville) that if an institution admitted students with less than fifteen units of high school credit, it ceased to be a college. Today, we are not so sure that that is true. We used to think that in order to be a college, its students must attend classes every day in the same manner in which they attended in every other year of formal education below the college. Now we are certain that this is not so. One by one those features which were formerly known to be fundamental determiners of higher education seem to be fading out of the picture."⁸

"This Association (according to President Rainey) is now considering a radical change in its point of view and in its accrediting procedure. It is proposing to surrender a set of quantitative standards which are the results of a generation of very successful standardizing experiences, and to substitute for them a set of more or less subjective qualitative principles. . . .

"We are now at the end of an era. The old standards performed unique service in the era that is past, but we have reached the time and place that they are no longer performing such useful functions, and for several years there has been an increasing dissatisfaction with them. . . . These new standards . . . may conceivably transform the entire program of higher education during the next quarter of a century."⁹

Are you prepared now, Catholic educators, to have revealed to you the principles upon which these revolutionary changes are to turn? Do you expect that I will announce to you some new assault upon the Catholic philosophy of education? If so, I shall have to disappoint you. It must be that every conceivable experiment has already been tried by the experimenters in the field of education, and that it is now necessary for them to revert to sound and basic principles of education. For it certainly is true that these new standards, as they are called, are conceived to involve vital principles that are very familiar to us. To quote further from President Rainey, who has cooperated with the Commission on the Revision of Standards:

"They possess three powerful educational dynamics. They are demands. First, that institutions shall offer a clear definition of their purposes; second, that individuality of institutions will not only be preserved, but encouraged; third, that institutions will be judged by the quality of the service they render to their students and by the quality of the student product."¹⁰ . . .

⁸ "Significance of the New Standards to the Association." President R. A. Kent, University of Louisville, *ibid.*, p. 275.

⁹ "The Operation of the New Standards." President Homer P. Rainey, Bucknell University, *ibid.*, p. 278.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 278.

It is considered by the same speaker that the setting up of these new principles of accrediting will have very salutary effects upon the schools, because, firstly, it will shift their emphasis from the acquiring of physical material facilities to an emphasis upon their service to students, and upon the quality of their product; secondly, it will give a new meaning to faculties and teachers. It will shift emphasis from years of training in degrees to the personal contributions which teachers make to the intellectual, moral and spiritual growth of their students; thirdly, it will stimulate real intellectual work on the part of students and faculties. They will now be conscious that they are being rated with others, not upon endowments, laboratories, library facilities, etc., but upon their educational achievements.¹¹

All of these quotations which I have cited are taken from the talks of prominent educators who presented their findings before the last annual meeting of the North Central Association, at Chicago. These men speak as pioneers of the new trend in education. To Catholic educators their words have a familiar sound. They but express our inmost convictions and our oft-repeated, almost platitudinous utterances. To hear them thus plainly spoken from the mouths of secular educators almost prompts us to say, "I told you so."

In bringing them to you today as expressions of the most significant trend confronting Catholic Education in a Changing World, I am not doing so with the thought of trying to convince you of their truth, because you have ever believed and held these principles. They are traditional in Catholic education. It is my purpose merely to point out this hopeful trend and to utter a word of warning that danger may readily lie in store for Catholic education. We have been forced to adopt the material standards set for us in the past, although in our hearts all along we have felt that they were artificial and by no means conclusive. It is possible that many of us have been deceived in trying to meet such standards. We may have been deceived as to their true values and may have been lulled into a feeling of satisfaction and contentment when we have received approval of the various standardizing bodies. While it is true that the endeavor to meet the accrediting principles which are now proposed will be more in

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 279.

accord with our deepest convictions, there is no need of minimizing the redoubled efforts which we must make to set our houses in order, so that we may not be found wanting under the very standards, and judged by the very principles which we have held to for so long. I do not think that we should minimize the difficulties which many of our schools of all levels, elementary, secondary, college and university, may experience in holding their own with the secular institutions under this new order of things. There is so much that must rest upon the subjective judgment of individuals in the appraising of our work that we must be alert to see that no unfairness enters into accrediting procedures. This is particularly the case in our high schools and colleges.

Doctor Gage of Coe College has expressed this thought for educational institutions in general:

"I think it is the judgment of most people who are engaged in the formulation of the new standards that it will be much more difficult to conform to the standards that are being devised than it will be to those which are now in existence, and for the reason that it is rather more difficult to raise new ideals and to live under the inescapable authority of the love of excellence than it is to conform in a rather formal way to a minimum objective standard."¹²

In order that we may understand a little more clearly how these new standards will operate in practice, it will be useful for us to examine, by way of example, the new standard proposed as a requirement on admissions. I am very fortunate to be able to present this in the words of President George F. Zook, of the University of Akron, and now United States Commissioner of Education. The requirement on admissions would, according to Dr. Zook, read somewhat as follows:

"An institution should have a system of admitting students who are competent to undertake the work of the curricula to which they are admitted. You will notice (says Dr. Zook) that in this definition nothing is said about high school units nor accredited secondary schools. In other standards I believe (he continues) that it will also be possible to omit all specific requirements relative, for example, to 120 semester hours for degrees, minimum endowment and income provisions, the requirement for a minimum of eight departments and 8,000 books in the library,

¹² "Introductory Remarks by the Chairman of the Commission," H. M. Gage, President of Coe College, North Central Association Quarterly, Volume VIII, No. 2, p. 234.

sixteen hours of teaching, and the specification relative to Doctor's, Master's and Bachelor's degrees for faculty members. Even the word 'standard' itself may enter the limbo of obsolete terms. If it remains, it will put off all the old meaning of minimum specific requirements and take on the new meaning of a desirable ideal or principle toward the more complete attainment of which all institutions, even the best among the accredited ones, may strive continually. *Minimum specific standards of the old type may always be realized rather easily by institutions with fairly good financial resources.* Standards of the new type, like all ideals, are never completely realized by any institution, but they stand as a constant challenge for improved effort to all institutions.

"In substituting (he continues) general optimum standards for minimum specific standards, it is at once clear that there is no one royal way to realize the ideal set forth in the standard. In every case there is likely to be a variety of ways. Hence an institution will be fully at liberty to choose its own methods. In some instances the institutional machinery may be elaborate and formal; in other instances it may be possible for an institution to perform the function as effectively through machinery which is less imposing and much more informal.

"If very full liberty as to ways and means of attaining a standard is extended, an institution may reasonably be expected to accept appropriate and accompanying responsibility. An institution should, therefore, in the process of accrediting, *be able to demonstrate that its methods*, its plan, or its organization are well considered and that they are effective in attaining the general principles called for in the standard, as they apply to the objectives which the institution has set for its goal. For example, to take an extreme case, I presume that anyone in visiting an institution would have real cause to question the practice of allowing engineering students to enter with no mathematics. Yet it is imaginable that even in an extreme case of this character, the institution has worked out well planned procedures for taking care of this situation. If it has done so, it will certainly be superior to the old minimum standard which simply requires fifteen so-called high school units. The results of the procedures, not the procedures themselves, will be the test of the degree to which a standard is attained."¹³

I have revealed to you at some length, members of the Catholic Educational Association, the newer trends in the world of education. I would not for a minute wish my comments thereon to be interpreted in the sense that I consider all of the educational objectives of the past, no matter how misguided they may have

¹³ *Ibid.*, "Some Issues Involved in the Revision of Standards and Accrediting Procedures." Pp. 236, 237.

been, to have been devoid of very helpful, if not of very important, results. Much good has been accomplished. It has been for us what we might call the "brick and mortar" period in the upbuilding of our Catholic education, and we are about to emerge now upon a new era where really worth while work can be done.

It so happens that this occurs at a time when conditions in this country, due largely to immigration restrictions, have practically called a halt in our actual building operations to meet the needs of our children. This is particularly true in the primary school field where recent reports of the superintendents of schools have shown that the primary school population has not increased in the past year, and that prospects are that the high mark for attendance has practically been reached.

Goaded on by the materialists in the field of education, our "brick and mortar" period has at least provided us with well lighted and properly ventilated classrooms. Let us now make them sanctuaries of effective teaching. Our teachers have been introduced to courses in scientific methods, as well as content courses in great abundance. Let them now add to this preparation real zeal and sound common sense and labor day in and day out to produce a Catholic laity, equal to, if not superior to, the best product of secular education. Our minimum standards have required us to stack our library shelves with books and to have expert service in the organization and in the conduct of our libraries. Let us now as teachers strive all the more to introduce our students to careful habits of reading, and to a genuine appreciation of the fine things of literature. Our "brick and mortar" period has furnished us with well-equipped laboratories. Let us now introduce our young charges into the mysteries of science, with the hope that some of them may be encouraged at an early age to develop a love for scientific research, in order that, as they grow older, they may be prompted to delve into the hidden depths of God's creation and thus find additional reasons to praise the depths of the wisdom and the knowledge of God.

With the emphasis removed from the material objectives in education, with a more favorable environment and with improved facilities (and with a word of gratitude to the depression), having as always religion as the leaven of our whole program, we can now proceed to educate.

EDWARD V. STANFORD.

SOME EARLY TEACHERS IN CONNECTICUT

The coming tercentennial celebration of the founding of the Calvinistic Commonwealth of Connecticut, in which religious toleration was not held as a godly virtue, can hardly emphasize a Catholic note. Indeed, it will mark a mere century of the organized existence of the Catholic Church with the establishment of Holy Trinity Chapel, Hartford, in 1830. The tight little colony of Connecticut offered no generous haven for foreigners, not even for Scotch-Irishmen and certainly not for stray Celts whose "popish beliefs" were a matter of suspicion. In this instance one might cite the dismissal of the Reverend Timothy Collins from his living at Litchfield (1723), or the protest of the settlers of Voluntown against Samuel Dorrance, an Irish-born Presbyterian minister, as the occasion of bringing unwholesome Irish inhabitants into the region (1722), or the complaint of Mr. Lyons, an Episcopalian minister, who maintained that he was abused because of his Irish birth.¹ However, occasional Irishmen appeared in the seventeenth century, naturalized "half-breeds" from Massachusetts, some indentured servants and transported criminals, deserters from British ships, and refugees from the Barbados who found passage on schooners engaged in the West Indian trade especially with New London.

These Irishmen came as individuals and soon lost their identity in the Anglo-Saxon, Congregationalist population. Only the surname, and that in mutilated style, continued to live in town records. And the Irish element relative to the whole population increased slightly during the following century, when Ulster was shipping its surplus Presbyterian population to northern New England, Pennsylvania, and the Carolinas. A recent careful estimate of the Irish element (from the four provinces) in 1790 is only 2.9 per cent of the total population, hardly more than that of Rhode Island, which ranked lowest in the Irish element of the New England states.² Hence one would not look for Irish peda-

¹ Ellen D. Larned, *History of Windham County* 1 (1874, 1880) 5; William Byrne (ed.), *History of the Catholic Church in the New England States* (1899), II, 20, 21.

² Report of Committee of American Council of Learned Societies on Linguistic and National Stocks in the Population of the U. S. *Annual Report of the American Historical Association*, 1931, I, 270.

gogues, nor was there much opportunity in theocratic communities where the orthodoxy and godliness of the inhabitants were so cautiously guarded by settled ministers and their associated magistrates.

Following the practice of Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut passed an act in 1701 which urged the obligation of parents to teach children and apprentices to read the laws and the Word of God and ordained that there be a common school conducted throughout the year in towns of seventy families and for a period of six months in each year in lesser towns. There was to be a preparatory school at each county seat and a college for the colony as a whole, and schools were to be aided by allowances from the colonial treasury. In 1717, the control of the schools was assigned to the organized local religious society, where its management remained until 1798, when it was transferred to specially established school societies in answer to the growing democracy and toleration of the time.

Despite this legislation, schooling was necessarily backward in the impoverished towns where taxes were resented and where making a living was a trying task of self-discipline. Teaching and teachers were regulated by the local ministers of the Established Order, who determined the qualifications of candidates for teachers' licenses and estimated their "godly character" to the disparagement of non-Congregationalists. Yale College furnished the towns with preachers and teachers capable of preserving their charges from ignorance and the heresies of a diluted Calvinism such as Harvard College was accused of practicing. And the county schools had to be satisfied with local dames who taught the rudiments of reading and writing to favored girls and with half-literate farmers who taught boys in the winter, thus supplementing the returns from their stony lands.

The Connecticut towns represented a primitive society, but their very economic backwardness resulted in teaching their residents the lessons of self-denial, thrift, laboriousness, and integrity of far greater value than mere bookish learning without moral training. Schooling in letters and morals were strictly sectarian, and with no apologies.

Such a system left little opportunity for the foreign-born teacher, nor for even colonials born outside of the Commonwealth. This thought is borne out by the almost total absence of Irish

teachers, or rather of teachers with Irish names, who managed to attain sufficient local fame to be noted in records. About three years after Theophilus Eaton and the Rev. John Davenport, whose brother peculiarly enough appears to have been a Franciscan friar,³ there came among a group of unhappy refugees from the Barbados a young scholar, William Collins, concerning whose racial identity nothing is known. He found temporary employment as a teacher in Hartford until he married a daughter of Anne Hutchinson, with whose party he was murdered when it was ambushed by the Indians in Westchester County.⁴

Not again does there seem to have been a suspicious teacher until 1705, when Luke Hayes (d.1712) taught in Farmington. Two years later, the town in a spirit of prudent caution voted "It to be their minds that Mr. Luke Hayes shall not be further employed in teaching school."⁵ Apparently, there was no involved question of his right of tenure. A native of Armagh, Ireland, Alexander Bryan, doubtlessly a disciple of John Knox, taught in New Milford from its earliest days.⁶ In 1724, Allen Mullen was named the first teacher in Montville on a salary of twenty-four pounds per year with a land grant of 10 acres. It was in this diminutive town that James Hillhouse, a native of Ireland, was called to preach in 1723. Over his salary, during a six months' visit to his native land, there was an interminable dispute with the preacher refusing a settlement and continuing to preach in his own house when his pulpit was filled by another. No doubt the Allan Mullins who was appointed a teacher in New London (1734) was the same pedagogue advanced to a larger town.⁷

Reverend Robert Ross (1726-99), the son of Irish immigrants and a graduate from the College of New Jersey (Princeton), in 1751, served as pastor of the Stratfield Church and compiled a speller and grammar for the schools.⁸ Robert Murphy (1735-74),

³ Thomas J. Shahan in *U. S. Catholic Historical Magazine*, II (1888) 153, 274.

⁴ Joseph B. Felt, *Ecclesiastical History of New England*, (1855), 436, 504, 509; *Journal of the American Irish Historical Society (J.A.I.)*, 9 (1910), 202, 23 (1924), 37.

⁵ *J.A.I.*, 27 (1929), 207.

⁶ *J.A.I.*, 5 (1905), 96.

⁷ J. W. Lewis & Co. (publisher), *History of New London County* (1882), 212, 576 f.

⁸ Samuel Orcutt, *A History of the City of Bridgeport* (1887), 58.

an Irishman with experience as a private tutor in England, taught schools in Greenwich and Middle Patten after 1756. He became the founder of the distinguished family of Newark, New Jersey, which was honorably represented in the Revolution, in the War of 1812, and in the governorship by Franklin Murphy (1902-05).⁹ An outstanding figure of Redding and a teacher in the academy at Greenfield Hill as well as an engineering-surveyor on the Boston Post Road was William Heron (1742-1819). A native of Cork and a graduate of Trinity College, Dublin, he arrived in America in time to witness the Stamp Act troubles. Loyalists complained that his teaching was seditious, with the result that he must have become more prudent, for he was suspected of being a neutral during the War. Later investigation would indicate that he may have been a useful American spy whose manners and dialect made it simple for him to pass as an English Tory. At any rate, Squire Heron lost no caste, for he represented Redding in the General Assembly from 1784 to 1790.¹⁰

During the Revolutionary War, an advertisement appeared in the *Hartford Courant* that Fagan and Balentine, officers of the Fifty-fifth Regiment, would under a license of the Committee of Inspection of Hartford teach arithmetic, geometry, trigonometry, gauging, drilling and music. Apparently these prisoner-teachers felt competent to give as good if not a better mathematical course than Yale College could offer.¹¹ After the War, Alexander Macdonald (1752-92), a Scot, taught at Norwich and published *The Youth's Assistant*. In 1797, J. C. Devereaux was a popular dancing master in the same town.¹² In New London, Master John Owen (1736-1801), son of the Rev. John Owen of Groton, whose Irish origin was extremely doubtful, taught from the year of his graduation from Yale until 1795.¹³ In Bridgeport, Mrs. Geary's School (1804) urged its advantages for young ladies who would learn reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, needlework,

⁹ *J.A.I.*, 24 (1925), 135.

¹⁰ C. B. Todd, *History of the Town of Redding, Conn.* (1880), 197 f., 240, but especially the later edition (1906), 51, 58-63.

¹¹ Issue of Feb. 3, 1777, as quoted in J. H. Trumbull, *Memorial History of Hartford County*, 1 (1886), 305.

¹² B. T. Marshall, *Modern History of New London County*, I (1922), 34 f.

¹³ Cf. Benjamin Stark, "Historical Sketch of the Schools of New London" in *Records and Papers of the New London County Historical Society* (1896), 117; *History of New London County* (1882), 212.

painting, and drawing.¹⁴ Edward O'Brien (1757-1836), a native of Guilford, and possibly the descendant of an Irish indentured servant by a native wife, taught the local school. About 1798, he published a school dictionary, of which there are copies in the Yale Library and in the British Museum. Two years later, in collaboration with the Reverend John Elliott, he prepared a second dictionary for schools, thus antedating the more ambitious work of Noah Webster, a fellow-teacher.¹⁵ There was no history text beyond a score of pages which Webster compiled on the period since the Revolution for Morses' Geography. What with the *Bible*, *Psalter*, *Dilworth's Spelling Book*, Dr. Morse's *American Geography* (1789), and his own books, Webster could well issue the warning that there were too many rather than too few books¹⁶ for pupils whose sires had managed with hour-glasses, brick-rods, quill pens, a sheet of paper used by several children, copybooks made by the teacher, and memory work from the teachers' copies of textbooks.

That there were educated Irishmen who could not qualify as teachers is indicated by the case of Frank O'Toole. Educated in Ireland, he was on his way to complete his training in France—probably for the priesthood—when he was captured and impressed into service in the British navy. After three years, he escaped to Boston, and, after traveling over the country a few years, he found employment with Col. Thomas Seymour in Hartford. Known as "Pat" and regarded as a wild, unlettered Irishman, he gave himself away when young Richard Seymour on vacation from Yale College went into the kitchen to display his Latin only to be answered in that tongue by the foreign servant. Overheard by his mistress, he immediately became "Mister O'Toole," and Richard was told that he would be improved by further acquaintance in the kitchen. O'Toole followed the Yankee migration to Augusta, Oneida County, New York, where he died in 1842, leaving a family of some note, his son being a lawyer in Albany.¹⁷

¹⁴ D. H. Hurd, *History of Fairfield County* (1891), 90.

¹⁵ *J.A.I.*, 6 (1906), 56.

¹⁶ Henry Barnard on Education and Schools in Trumbull, *op. cit.*, I, 628 f.; Joseph P. Beach, *History of Cheshire, Conn.* (1912), 99 f.

¹⁷ Pomroy Jones, *Annals and Recollections of Oneida County, N. Y.* (1851), 89-90.

There was little Irish immigration into Connecticut until 1840, when the State entered a period of industrial development with canal digging, the construction of railroads, and the development of factories with their cry for cheap labor at interminable hours. The growth of the Catholic Church was painfully slow, and its membership faced a determined, though orderly, opposition in politics, in factories, and especially in schools, which remained decidedly sectarian—that is, Puritan—in teaching and in teachers. Nowhere in America was the need of Catholic schools greater if the children of immigrants were to retain the faith of their ancestors.

Slowly parochial schools were founded by Irish pastors who sought the services of laymen and women at the wages of a day-laborer. Little has been written about these sacrificing teachers, but their contribution to the welfare of the immigrants was greater than their lack of recognition would indicate. In 1836, Thomas Maguire and John Murphy were teaching in the basement-school of Holy Trinity Church, Hartford, a school which five years later had a hundred children. In 1838, John Smith had St. John's School in New Haven. In 1848, St. Mary's parochial school was founded with Mr. Luby and Miss Meagher instructing the children, while five years later St. Patrick's school on the other side of New Haven was administered by Arabella Darigan and William Fitzpatrick. At Middletown, St. John's Catholic School was kept from 1849 to 1866 by Andrew A. Cody, a graduate of a classical institute at Fermoy in County Cork, with the assistance of the Misses Isabella and Helen Fagan. In 1866, it became a public school until 1872, when it was placed under the Sisters of Mercy.¹⁸

In 1851, the Irish Sisters of Mercy were introduced into the diocese by Bishop Bernard O'Reilly and soon took over three parochial schools in Hartford and New Haven and ultimately extended their superior educational system throughout the State.¹⁹ When O'Reilly was drowned with the sinking of the ill-fated *Pacific* (1856), he left a diocese with about 60,000 com-

¹⁸ J. B. Beers (publisher), *History of Middlesex County* (1884), 144 f.; J. A. Rooney (ed.) *Connecticut Catholic Year Book* (1877), 61 f., 65 f., 70 f.

¹⁹ Cf. Sister Mary Cecilia O'Reilly and Mary Valerian Reilly, *Sisters of Mercy in the Diocese of Hartford* (1931); Thomas S. Dugan, *The Catholic Church in Connecticut* (1930), 165 f.; Rooney, *op. cit.*, 114 f.

municants, forty-two priests, two boys' academies, three girls' academies, and nine parochial schools.²⁰ This was the nucleus of the later Catholic educational system. The day of the lay teacher in Catholic elementary and secondary education had passed, and it was a long time before Catholic teachers were regarded as capable of holding appointments in the public school system of the tight little State of Connecticut.

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

²⁰ Byrne, *op. cit.*, II, 149.

THE NECESSITY OF MUSICAL TRAINING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

"Music like language should be the earliest means of education."—*Pestalozzi*.

Music is a language—not in the mere sense that it is expressed by such words as art and use have conceived, but that it conveys ideas and sentiments so masterful and overpowering, yet withal so delicate, that it defies definition. As in speech, the meaningless letters are set into syllables, the syllables into words, and these again arranged into sentences, so in music the expressionless notes are balanced into figures or motives, these are united into phrases, which phrases are then grouped into sections, periods, and movements. However, the language of words and the language of music differ essentially. Words are the language of thought; music, of emotion. You will realize this if you consider that words can have no influence over feeling except through the intellect, for the words of an unknown tongue can touch no chord within the human heart. So, while the accent of some foreign shore will fall unheeded on our ears, its tones of music will thrill with the same messages in each human soul. Music is the "one touch of nature which makes the whole world kin." It harmonizes all to concord, not in the unity of intelligence, but of soul. The melodies fraught with Erin's grief, or France's frolics, with the ardor of Italian love, or the passion of romantic Spain, or the soul stirring earnestness of that deep thinking Teutonic race, will create these same sentiments under any sky or on any shore. Music is a language of the heart, and the heart needs no interpreter.

Music, like faith, is a gift of God; like faith it is a source divine, from which all may come to draw, each according to his need. It is man's rightful heritage, the germ of which, like the tiny seed of faith planted in the human heart, awaits only the master hand to bring it forth into the sunshine of life. If, then, music is man's heritage, does it seem fair that the beauty, the joy and the pleasure that are the natural outcome of this heritage should be denied him in those days, when his whole responsive nature cries out for beauty and pleasure—the happy days of childhood?

It is conceded that no nation ever had a better appreciation of

cultural values in education than the Greeks of Classic days, and they always insisted on music as a *sine qua non* of youthful training. It was the duty of the state to keep the moral standing of the people through the medium of music, which fact proves that among them music was not only educational but also refined, having, as well, a definite utilitarian purpose outside the pleasure it gave. Mark Plato's definition of music. "Music," he writes, "is the art which by means of sound enters into the heart of man and inspires taste for the beautiful, lovable, true and good, and forms him to the practice of virtue." Shall we do less than did the Greeks of old?

Catholic education aims at the development of the whole man—to provide the child with those experiences which are calculated to develop in him such knowledge, appreciation, and habits, as will yield a character equal to the contingencies of fundamental Christian living. We are trained from childhood to mental stimuli; but our emotions, which also should be properly developed, are oftentimes restrained, and none will deny the fatal consequences resulting from alluring appeals to untrained emotions.

Now, since music is an important factor in our social heredity, to ignore it is to thwart the realization of educational ideals. Where this is the case, the child has been deprived of an inheritance rightfully his, which deprivation is destined to result in an abnormally dwarfed emotional life for the adult. To counteract this, the Church has taken the arts into her own hands and shaped them to her divine purpose. Therefore, she clings to her own music, the Chant, which, if music be called the education of the feelings, is *par excellence* the education of Catholic sentiment.

That music has a natural place in the curriculum of our Catholic schools is becoming more evident each day. We know that proper motivation and aroused interest are necessary for the assimilation of any subject, but how much more for sublime truths. This will explain the importance which the Church has always attached to the correct musical setting for her dogma, a setting which, as Justine Ward so beautifully describes in her Preface of Ward IV, "not only excites the feelings, but gives to the text an appropriate form of expression." Our Holy Father

Pope Pius X declares the function of Church Music to be life-giving and efficacious. This can be best accomplished by the enriching of the doctrinal content through the symbolic use of themes, by supplying that power which personal feeling adds to a mere conception of the intellect, by cultivating the ability to distinguish, and then to respond only to the highest emotional appeal. In all these respects the Chant of the Church stands supreme.

All this is educative in the highest sense, for by it the children in our schools will learn to distinguish between Christian emotion and pagan sense-appeal. Music will become to them not a series of pleasing sounds to delight the senses, but it will lift their hearts and minds to the standard of the Church's thoughts and ideals. Outside the Church we do not find this almost spiritual attitude towards music, due most probably to the lack of an elevating aim. In secular schools, the generally accepted idea or aim in the teaching of music is not to prepare for future choir work, but to stress the recreational value of the art and to instil a cultural appreciation of the same. Yes, in these schools the standard of skill in reading music has become submerged, as it were, in the recent emphasis upon the *appreciation of music*. In some quarters, the emphasis on appreciation has swung to an extreme, largely through lack of understanding as to what the term includes. The result has been an over-emphasis upon the passive side. Should not *every* lesson be a lesson of appreciation? Does not the child appreciate as truly when he enjoys his own power to interpret the staff as when he sits listening to a record or a radio? *Participation* in performance should increase appreciation.

Other subjects in the elementary school curriculum have profited much by recent findings in the field of the psychology of education, why not music? As a matter of fact it should, for in the light of psychology the aim of Music Teaching in the Catholic elementary school must be definite. First and primarily, the objective is to reach the Chant.

Unfortunately, some—I may say many—of our people assume a strange attitude toward the Chant. Their position is aptly described in this statement of a noted lecturer. "We would not dare to criticise the vestments and ceremonies used at Mass, no matter how ancient they may be; nor would we dare to criticise

the Latin language though we do not understand; but all—from first to last—seem to have the right to condemn the *music* of the Church, music of which they know *less than nothing*."

But there are other valuable aims in music instruction, and we may profitably consider a few of them.

1. *The Aesthetic Aim*.—If music fails to broaden the aesthetic experiences of the child, it falls short of its mark. It must effect a general uplift by awakening in the child a realization of the intrinsic beauties of music as expressed in tone and melody. Again, if music instruction does not deepen aesthetic experience, it does the opposite, namely, destroys the child's conception of the beautiful and thereby defeats its own purpose.

2. *The Emotional Aim*.—We dwelt on this to some extent when we referred to the emotional training given to the child in the study of Chant. The ennobling of the emotions is almost inseparably linked with the appreciation of good music, and, assuredly, only such music should be included in any course of study. The child is instinctively sensitive and responsive to music, for music more than any other art is essentially expressive of feeling which is childhood's keenest susceptibility. The singularly successful way in which music develops the finer emotions is an acknowledged fact. To ignore its value in elementary education is nothing short of criminal. Every child should be given an opportunity to express his emotions in musical form—by means of vocal or instrumental performance.

3. *The Social Aim*.—A popular tendency now seems to be toward group work in almost every phase of school life, and what is more effective in arousing the spirit of cooperation and responsibility than exercises in various musical activities? What a splendid adventure in socialized project work to have a class render their singing with particular attention to beautiful, exact tone, rhythm and expression. If wisely selected, these songs can be suggestive of the class spirit and of the sympathetic feelings of the pupils. Music has the advantage of bringing man in touch with the spirit, ideals and sentiments of his fellow beings, of harmonizing and ennobling social life, of creating and enriching that democracy which binds men more closely, and insures the realization of God's age-old desire voiced by His angels, "good will to men."

In addition to these aims, aesthetic, emotional and social, the method of procedure is of utmost importance. To attain any degree of success in musical training, it is necessary to begin with the first grade and make music a familiar and delightful language to the child rather than a mere aimless recreation. We should train the voice until it becomes a beautiful instrument that will respond to the child's innate desire for self-expression. We should stimulate his emotions by presenting for his imitation models of the highest order, masterpieces worthy of the great end in view, but decidedly characterized by that simplicity and sincerity which are the unfailing marks of true nobility. Joubert has fittingly said, "We should place before a child only what is simple, lest we corrupt his taste, and only what is pure, lest we corrupt his heart."

Too much cannot be said in favor of a sound practical foundation in musical study. Granted that children—with but few exceptions—are musically inclined, for even the youngest child we cannot lay sufficient stress on the harm done by poor musical training. The best methods are useless if not in the hands of the efficient or, at least, the thoroughly interested teacher. Not all children, of necessity, will become musicians, but all should partake of the cultural value of music and learn to play and sing for their own pleasure and for the entertainment of others. Hence, the teacher's standards should be high. She herself must be equipped with pure, correct tone and with all the elements of music necessary to make her, not a virtuoso, but a teacher who imparts worth-while instruction.

Psychologists tell us that self-activity is the keynote of education, and this can, in a very definite way, be applied to the study of music. We have said that the study of music should begin in the first grade; we advocate also that as early as this first scholastic year the child's mind should be trained to self-activity, by cultivating the art of sight reading. If the languages are to be used with ease and perfection of accent, they must be rooted in the very young, and training and practice must be constant. Why not give musical language the same early start, the more so since its primary objective is religious—to enhance the spiritual dignity and emotional impression of divine worship? Can emotional expression be directed too early to its ultimate spiritual end?

In music, in many cases, the early teaching of singing implies perhaps a few vocal exercises in the form of scales, which in themselves are valuable in that they are an aid in producing proper voice placement. This is invariably accompanied by the teaching of songs or hymns by rote, and yet right here is where the principle of self-activity should be brought to bear upon this phase of the work. There are several excellent methods used at present in our elementary schools; however, none accomplishes its aim more satisfactorily than does the Ward Method, so extensively followed in the Catholic schools throughout the United States. This assertion is made not because of the catholicity of the method, but rather on account of the sound psychological and pedagogical principles that underlie it. Rote singing finds no place in this method. From the first, the child is taught that music is not a mere accomplishment to be added as a finishing process to an education, but rather a natural form of expression which progresses with his natural development. The reading of music is made as natural as the reading of the vernacular. But, to accomplish this, we can teach only two or three tones at a time; these, combined with a few rhythmic figures, are all that the child's powers of assimilation can cope with. He should sing them, recognize them when others sing them, and weave them into little patterns of his own designing, to arrange and rearrange according to his own fancy.

Sight reading is further made possible by the use of numbers instead of notes (throughout the early years) until the tonal intervals are firmly established, and by the use of few songs, but many Solfa's (songs without words). These last acquaint the child with good music without hampering his mind with words. Experience proves that combining text and music is the greatest difficulty in the first stages of music teaching. It has been said by way of criticism that the Ward Method makes little or no provision for secular music, but the child who has completed Third Year Ward (and this can be accomplished in the fifth grade) must of necessity have a fair knowledge of the elements of music—Scales, Intervals, Chords, Modulation, Chromatics, and the various Rhythms, while as a result of the splendid system of vocal exercises he should possess a clear, full tone, flexibility and breath control, all of which may be well applied to either secular music or to the Chant. A Superintendent of

Schools once made the following statement: "They (meaning public school supervisors) say 'The Ward Method does not get you anywhere.'" I, in turn, asked the question: "Where do you want to go, Father? If you are on the road to fulfill the Holy Father's wish, then the Ward Method is a direct path, indeed a short cut. If, however, you wish to follow music of the secular order, the child after studying Third Year Ward in the fifth grade is fully equipped to pass over to secular music." The Chant should, however, play the important part in the life of our Catholic children, and we may well ask why it is that our classes are not yet properly organized since most of our teachers have been acquainted with the Method for ten or more years. Why is it that Music I is still being taught in the upper grades in spite of the fact that this Method has been in vogue over fifteen years, and it should take at most six years to get the classes organized in proper sequence. May this perhaps, be the explanation? The allotted twenty-minute period for the study of music is not adhered to, or it is the least resisting victim of any unforeseen circumstance, or, in many instances, is it not considered negligible in importance in comparison with other studies?

Pestalozzi, the great psychologist and educator, furnishes us with a striking example of what harm can be done by poor musical training. He himself had an inferior teacher in music, and in later life he realized his own deficiency in the knowledge of music. Cognizant of its necessity as an essential part of education, he called on several great musicians of that time to write out a course or plan for the education of very young children. Horstig, a follower of Pestalozzi, would have priests interest themselves in how Church Music is sung. How can Church music be brought to a higher plane if not through school choirs? Indeed, it is the importance that priests, superiors and supervisors give to music as an educational factor that largely determines the success or failure of the teacher of music in our elementary schools. Quite logically, then follows the success or failure of our church choirs which are the natural outcome of this instruction.

Few pastors interest themselves in the musical instruction in their schools, little realizing the basic influence it has on future parochial spirit. They are forced to be satisfied if they hear a few hymns—often poorly rendered—at the Children's Mass on

Sunday, and, perhaps, at one or other of the services, but they fail to recognize that on their cooperative good will and insistence on proper, methodical instruction in their schools, rests the only hope for the devotional life of their young charges—whose habits of response to the highest appeal must be inculcated before high school age is reached. The supervisor or school superintendent, too, shares in this responsibility of recognizing the value of musical training and of fostering the earnest desire of the Holy See for improvement in Church singing. When the movement of school music first came into prominence, the Superintendent of Schools in Cincinnati complained that the art of musical education was confined to teaching the children to sing songs and hymns by rote. This complaint, justified then, is justified today. Music, to accomplish its purpose, must be put on a par with other subjects in the curriculum. Supervisors of schools must, in justice to their office as educational leaders, give music its share of attention in their visits. They should observe the class in vocal with the same interest as the class in geography, English and mathematics. Some dioceses, fortunately, have their special supervisors of music who make periodical visits to the schools, but, where this is not possible, it is flagrantly culpable to ignore the true value of music in classroom supervision.

Although Pope Pius X issued his famous "Motu Proprio" in 1903, it was years before his ideas were actually put into work. If we glance over the history of Music Instruction in our Catholic Elementary Schools at this time and for a period of approximately ten or twenty years later, we will notice that one by one the Bishops of certain dioceses became interested in the teaching of singing in their schools to such an extent that in some instances they not only advocated it but even designated that some particular method of instruction be followed. For example, in the "Musical Instruction in our Elementary Schools" by Rev. John E. Lamek, we read that the Bishop of Syracuse had directed that the Ward Method of teaching music be used in his parochial schools. The Course of Study in the schools of many of our large cities, New York, Boston, Brooklyn, etc., not only includes the teaching of music, but in a great many cases it specifies the allotted number of minutes per week to be devoted to it. Historical evidence proves that music has always had a place in

the Catholic School curriculum, but the disappointment is that in the nineteenth century music did not keep pace with the progress made in some of the other subjects. Might this not be due to the lack of zeal or interest shown in this art by Catholic educators?

Perhaps it may seem a digression from the aim of this paper, which is to stress the necessity of musical training in the elementary schools, but a true educator will realize that if, in the lower grades, music receive the same attention and interest as the other subjects, the child will be prepared for the Chant by the time he reaches the intermediate classes (sixth grade), and this, to the Catholic teacher imbued with true religious zeal, is the paramount aim of musical training. Were this order carried out, we would not hear the oft-repeated complaint that the music period must be utilized for choir practice.

The success or failure in the Course of Music Instruction in our Parochial Schools depends more than we realize on the cooperation of the grade teacher. According to our accepted Method, to the regular grade teacher should fall charge of the music instruction, the music teacher taking the class once or twice a week. With the teacher of music alone responsible for the instruction to be given, it will not require strained vision to see the impossibility of musical training in a school of sixteen to twenty classrooms. In many cases we find the vocal instruction limited to a twenty-minute period each week by the music teacher, and the intervening time used for other subjects which the grade teacher deems more important. This may account in no small degree for the impossibility of our teachers to have their classes progress beyond Music I, and for the deplorable inability of many sixth, yes, even seventh and eighth grade pupils to read at sight a single Mass or hymn.

Furthermore, music should not be an isolated element in the child's education; it can profitably be freely correlated with the other subjects of the curriculum, and here again it is to the regular grade teacher that the making of opportunities for such correlation falls. When a hitherto unfamiliar step in any subject is to be presented, few teachers hesitate; but, at the mere mention of teaching singing in the classroom, they declare in consternation their inability to sing, and even a proposed attempt is scorned. A spirit of loyal cooperation is not lacking, nor is the

failure due to ignorance of the subject matter. Teachers having mastered two, three, or four years Ward will deny emphatically any ability to impart the information acquired. Perhaps they need confidence in their own capability to do something they have never done before, yet they are eager to adopt every modern method approved for teaching any other subject. Is this a contradiction? Assuredly, with the religious motivation that the teaching of music claims, every teacher should be prompted to overcome such timidity or indifference. With high aim, enthusiastic endeavor, and the combined efforts of the reverend clergy, supervisors, and teachers, the results are bound to be successful, thereby benefitting the child and promoting God's greater honor and glory, which, after all, is the sole purpose of Christian education.

Permit me now to summarize the contents of this effort in the cause of a great ideal. We have considered:

1. Music as a language.
2. Music as man's rightful heritage.
3. The aims in music instruction.
4. Importance of method of procedure in this instruction.
5. The emotional training resultant from the study of Chant.
6. The necessary concomitant to insure success—the cooperation of priests, superiors, supervisors, and grade teachers.

To conclude: If we who would pose as leaders in the reformation of Church Music—if we, in our modern life, would build on the work of the pioneers in the Liturgical movement, in the Chant, we must lay the foundation in our elementary schools.

Let us, then, lead our children on the way to the Chant which, according to a writer of the last century, "has an almost sacramental power in calming a troubled spirit and leading the soul to God." Let us join ranks, *modern Crusaders* in the quest of our ideal. Let us be up and doing with the Crusade slogan, "because we want to." The Motu Proprio is our inspiration!

SISTER MARY AGNESINE, S.S.N.D.

PUPILS' DIFFICULTIES IN ARITHMETIC PROBLEM SOLVING¹

Arithmetic is generally regarded as the most difficult subject in the elementary school curriculum. According to Buswell and Judd, it is the chief source of non-promotion (2, p. 7). The difficulties presented by the subject are principally in problem solving rather than in computation since the former involves a more complex form of learning. Children are rather sharply divided in their preference for arithmetic. It is usually either well liked or very much disliked, but it is generally considered as a difficult subject by them regardless of whether they like or dislike it. Teachers agree that problem solving occasions more difficulty than does any other subject, and they frequently express considerable concern about the results of such instruction. The difficulty of arithmetic problem solving has prompted investigations of the specific nature of the difficulties that pupils experience. The importance of these studies lies in their contribution to a clarification of the procedures that children employ in problem solving. The results identify the obstacles and suggest methods of teaching whereby the difficulties that would otherwise arise may be obviated.

The reasons for the difficulty of arithmetic problem solving are readily apparent. The complex nature of the activity provides corresponding occasions for mistakes. Problem solving is not an activity which can be mastered merely through drill, for the constantly changing situations involved in problems require the higher processes of comprehension and discrimination. To be able to solve a problem requires a knowledge of the facts, skill in reading and computation, ability to perceive relations, and the ability to apply the relations to the facts. Reading is a highly complex mental activity in itself, but it is only one of several such complicated thought processes that are involved in problem solving. It is not surprising, therefore, that this phase of arithmetic should give rise to so much difficulty. Even with improved methods of teaching, the difficulty inherent in problem solving cannot be eliminated. The attempt to reduce the diffi-

¹ This is the fourth of a series of articles on the teaching of problem solving in arithmetic.

culties by substituting habit for thinking only establishes other difficulties, for problem solving without thinking is necessarily impossible. Children may find the correct answer by devious means, but such success can be had only with the simpler problems to which they have become accustomed. When confronted with novel situations, their habitual methods prove of no avail. Such children have not learned very much about problem solving, although they may be capable of answering a certain proportion of type problems correctly.

The difficulties that arise in problem solving correspond to the abilities and processes which are normally involved. An adequate psychology of problem solving would identify each step and specify the abilities upon which the processes depend. The psychology of problem solving, however, is generally more evident from the difficulties experienced and the mistakes made than it is from its successful operation. Many descriptions of the nature of problem solving are biased by preconceived theories of the nature of the thought processes. While association may enter into most forms of cognitive activity, it does not follow that problem solving is exclusively association. The associations must be guided by an insight into the relations that the problem involves, and, as these relations vary with the nature of the problem and its form of statement, the establishment of connections cannot constitute the entire equipment that is needed. The theory which maintains that problem solving is merely trial and error activity aggravates the difficulty, for it cannot provide pupils with any definite method of procedure other than aimless activity. Although there may be a certain amount of success attained simply by giving pupils verbal problems that correspond to the computation activities recently learned, there is no real mastery of problem solving acquired. The "problems" in such a case are simply examples of computation with a slightly different setting which the children may easily ignore. It may be well to remember that a problem may be solved by exactly the same processes that are used with the numbers alone. The presentation of the numbers in a problem setting does not guarantee that there will be anything added to the thought processes. Such methods necessarily invite the development of habits incompatible with the mastery of a problem solving method.

Problem solving should consist of an understanding of the

problem and of orderly procedures which a comprehension of the problem identifies as necessary for the determination of the answer. Such activity depends on intelligence in several of its phases. All problem solving begins with a comprehension of the statement of the problem, usually by reading the problem. Reading is a process of becoming aware of the thought and, as such, depends on intelligence to a considerable extent. Furthermore, the understanding of the relations which the reading provides is synonymous with the commonly accepted definition of intelligence. Accordingly, both the comprehension of the statement of the problem and the understanding of the relations which the problem contains depend on general ability. Engelhart (4) analyzed the abilities entering into problem solving and found that approximately 25 per cent of the variance in problem solving was accounted for by differences in intelligence. This determination of the part played by intelligence is impaired somewhat by the failure of the various tests to account completely for problem solving since 33 per cent of the variance could not be ascribed to any factor within the tests used. A subjective analysis of the processes of reading and of the understanding and selection of relations reveals that intelligence is one of the principal factors upon which success in problem solving depends. This is confirmed by the fact that dull children are generally more retarded in problem solving than they are in any other school subject despite the emphasis which the subject is usually given. The general cognitive factor is frequently measured very successfully by tests of problem solving in arithmetic.

Experience is necessary in problem solving to understand the terms and to guide the activity of the thinking processes. Such experience may be assumed, but the errors made and the vocabulary difficulties indicate that an important source of difficulty in problem solving is the absence of the experiences which form the background for the interpretation of the problem and the mental manipulation of the facts. A problem that involves the buying and selling of a car obviously requires some conception of the meaning of the terms and of the transactions which they present. The dependence of problem solving on intelligence and experience needs no proof, but it is helpful to identify the particular forms of experience on which facility in problem solving rests.

The first part of problem solving involves only the comparatively passive process of understanding what the problem states and the specific question that is asked. This stage provides the basis for the active processes of identifying the means whereby the solution may be reached. The first part is essentially comprehension, whereas the second part is composed of the eduction of relations and the eduction of correlates. The apprehension of the means to bridge the gap between what is given and what is required is the essential phase of the whole activity, and it is precisely at this point that much of the difficulty is experienced. The consciousness of the relations at this point discloses the computation processes to be used, and the remainder of the activity consists principally in the computation proper. With such a series of steps and complicated processes, the possibilities of mistakes are numerous and an error at any point is practically certain to lead to a mistake in the answer.

This general description of problem solving in arithmetic is intended only to indicate the principal factors involved. Studies of pupils' difficulties reveal the specific difficulties encountered. Such studies are of two kinds. One type includes all investigations in which pupils' procedures are inferred from the answer and from the written work leading to the answer. One of the most extensive studies of this type is that of Osburn (6). His data consisted of the errors made by six thousand children. The total number of errors was over thirty thousand. The following classification affords a general impression of the sources of difficulty.

TYPES OF ERRORS AND THEIR APPROXIMATE FREQUENCY
(OSBURN, 6)

	Per cent
1. Total failure to comprehend the problem	30
2. Procedure partly correct but with the omission of one or two essential elements	20
3. Ignorance of fundamental quantitative relations	10
Total	60
4. Errors in fundamentals	20
5. Miscellaneous errors	2
6. Errors whose cause could not be discovered	18
Total	100

This method of investigating pupils' difficulties has the merit of being readily used even with large numbers of pupils and prob-

lems. The chief limitation of the method arises from the necessarily subjective character of the classification. Many pupils do not include all of their work in what they write, and there is the ever-present danger that the classification identifies the error rather than having the nature of the error suggest the classification. It is doubtful whether there is sufficient reliability to this procedure to make it more than a useful exploratory procedure. Many are of the opinion that mistakes of classification are very common and that the analysis is not sufficiently detailed to be useful. It may be noted that Osburn found that only one-fifth of the mistakes occurred in the actual computation of the answer. Three-fifths of the errors relate to the comprehension of the problem.

The second type of difficulty-analysis consists of the examination of individual children who are given problems which they solve aloud, resorting to written work where necessary. The children may be questioned on their procedure. This method makes possible a much more thorough analysis of pupils' difficulties, but the time that it requires limits it. The advantage of thoroughness at least offsets the limitation arising from the small samplings. One of the best studies of this type has been conducted by John (5). Pupils from the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades of two schools were given arithmetic problems, and a record was kept of their procedures. When their method was not clearly revealed by their responses, they were questioned regarding what they were thinking about. John classified the difficulties under four headings: Errors of reasoning, errors in fundamentals, errors in reading, and miscellaneous errors. John's study is a valuable contribution to the psychology of problem solving.

Studies of pupils' difficulties are important for teachers since these investigations reveal the methods whereby pupils attempt to solve problems. Such findings identify the principal obstacles and therefore make possible definite provision for the elimination of the difficulties by means of appropriate instruction. A knowledge of the intricacies of problem solving will generally produce a more tolerant attitude as well as a fuller comprehension of instructional procedures designed to anticipate difficulties that will otherwise occur. Skill in remedial teaching is largely dependent on a detailed analysis of the sources of difficulty. There can be

no intelligent assistance given pupils unless the teacher understands thoroughly the complicated nature of the process which the pupil must employ. In spite of the more or less obvious necessity of understanding the nature of problem solving, many teachers seem to be of the opinion that a happy combination of intelligence, reading ability, and computational skill will guarantee the solution of almost any problem that may be encountered. The writer asked a number of teachers to make a list of the difficulties which they observed in pupils' problem work. Despite the extensive experience which these teachers had had, only a few of them were able to define the difficulties of pupils with sufficient accuracy to furnish a basis for adequate instruction. Most of them were completely at a loss to understand what the difficulties are. Some overlooked such obvious factors as vocabulary difficulties. When the attention of these teachers was drawn to some of the specific difficulties, they were recognized easily enough, but the teachers must have been greatly handicapped by their lack of precise information regarding the means employed in the solution of verbal problems in arithmetic. Their method of teaching consisted for the most part of providing for an easy transition between computation and problem solving, giving pupils many problems to solve, and, in some cases, drilling on the conventional analysis of problems. Some processes were explained rather fully, but others were wholly neglected.

The following brief summary of pupils' difficulties in arithmetic problem solving is descriptive rather than quantitative. Precise determinations of the frequencies of various types of difficulty are probably superfluous. The errors vary with conditions of instruction, and it is more important to know the possibilities of mistakes than the frequency with which each is made in a large group of children. As a matter of fact, there is no reliable investigation of the frequency of various kinds of difficulties other than Osburn's study, which is not sufficiently analytical to be useful.

Many pupils fail in problem solving on account of insufficient general ability to cope with the difficulties that they encounter. The part played by general intelligence has already been discussed. Ability in solving problems decreases steadily as the intelligence quotient decreases, but there is, of course, no critical point which distinguishes those who can solve problems from

those who cannot. Undoubtedly much instruction in problem solving is unsuited both to the abilities of some pupils and their needs. Complicated and abstruse problems have been generally discarded from the curriculum, but many kinds of problems remain that possess neither training value nor social utility for a large proportion of dull pupils.

A general group of causes of failure in problem solving includes difficulties associated with the comprehension of the problem. The comprehension of a problem depends on intelligence and on reading. The importance of reading in problem solving has been dealt with at some length in an earlier article in this series. Inability to read accurately is an inevitable cause of difficulty, although improvements in reading are not always accompanied by corresponding improvements in ability to solve problems. One of the most important phases of the reading of arithmetic problems is the comprehension of the technical vocabulary of the subject. The learning of the meanings of arithmetic words is as much a part of the subject as the learning of the fundamental processes for there can be no progress without mastery of the concepts which the words represent. There is a large amount of evidence showing that teachers do not place sufficient emphasis on the acquisition of word meanings in arithmetic. Since most texts are seriously at fault in the way in which word meanings are introduced, it is necessary to make the teaching of the vocabulary of the subject an integral phase of instruction. This is true of all subjects, but it is especially true of arithmetic, for the precision of arithmetical processes demands corresponding clarity in the language of the subject. The method of teaching word meanings is not within the scope of the present article, but it may be remarked that formal definitions do not supply the necessary training.

Inability to read problems accurately may result from inadequate experience with the situations which the problems contain. Although there may not be any large difference in the difficulty of problems that involve familiar and unfamiliar settings, many pupils are puzzled when they encounter novel situations. It is generally recommended that problems be interesting and related to familiar experiences. This is neither always possible nor always desirable, but some of the difficulties of pupils arise in this way. In the lower grades particularly, there is little justification

for problems that contain elements entirely foreign to the experiences of the children.

Many errors in problem solving occur in the reasoning process. It is here, as previously indicated, that intelligence makes its influence felt most keenly. But all pupils who make mistakes are not necessarily dull, and the immediate causes of mistakes are numerous. The understanding of the relations depends on the comprehension of the facts, and some mistakes that are apparently due to errors of judgment may be caused by mistakes in reading. Among the other conditions of accuracy of thought are such things as the novelty of the situation, the presence of irrelevant data, the size of the numbers, the background of the child's experience, the amount of practice he has had with problems of the same type, etc. Each of these is a possible source of confusion and error. Some of them would be neutralized by others. Recent experience might offset the ordinary effect of irrelevant data; superior intelligence can surmount such obstacles as the size of the numbers. It is necessary to realize that individual differences in ability, experience, and practice affect the degree of difficulty which a problem possesses for each individual child.

Some of these difficulties are lessened by the possession of an adequate technique of solving problems. If a child knows how to go about the reading of a problem, how to select the facts that are required, his attention is not distracted as it is when he has no conception of the procedure to follow. The confusion that arises from the absence of a technique of problem solving may not be apparent in the performances of children who are given only problems belonging to certain types which they can readily recognize and which they can therefore solve by the application of a routine. This routine is not a method so much as it is a series of steps that are employed without any real comprehension of their value or logical connection.

Mistakes in computation are responsible for a large number of errors. Engelhart's data (4) emphasize the importance of skill in computation in the solving of problems. There are several aspects to the use of computation in problem solving such as the identification of the process to be used, familiarity with tables such as tables of weights, and the actual skill in computing the answer. The choice of the process to be employed is not compu-

tation so much as it is a phase of the understanding of the relations between the question asked and the facts supplied. The use of the wrong computation process is almost certain evidence of a failure to understand the means whereby the answer is to be obtained from the data given. The choice of the operation to be performed is, however, one of the fundamental difficulties which arises from the lack of insight into the relations contained in the problem.

As many problems require familiarity with denominate numbers and tables, lack of such knowledge will necessarily preclude the solution of the problem. The evident need of such skill requires no emphasis. The final step is the actual computation of the answer by the process identified as a result of the insight into the relations of the answer to the facts at hand. According to Osburn (6), 20 per cent of the errors in problem solving are due to mistakes in computation—all other steps having been correct. This is a difficulty that would seem to be more easily remedied than many others, but errors in computation persist despite the pupils' ability to obtain the correct answer when the computation is isolated from the problem statement. The awareness that a problem is being solved seems to have a distracting effect on skill in computation.

Many errors in problem solving are traceable to carelessness, particularly to illegible writing, disorderly written work, and similar causes. The necessity of emphasizing neatness should not require any proof, but all inventories of errors in problem solving reveal the presence of numerous mistakes that are due to careless writing, and hence to illegible figures, disorderly arrangement of the written work such as the arrangement of numbers in a column, misreading the answer, failure to copy it correctly, etc. Neatness in the written work is not emphasized, because the insistence is laid on the correctness of the answer exclusively and it does not seem to matter what has happened if the answer is correct. Emphasis is placed on neatness only when the answer is wrong, which is equivalent to tolerating a habit until it has acquired strength and then endeavoring to abolish it completely.

There are other causes of difficulty in arithmetic, but they are of a general nature. Distaste for the subject, lack of interest, and other general conditions will affect the learning of the subject as a whole. The factors discussed in this review are peculiar

to problem solving for the most part. Undoubtedly there are many others but the fundamental difficulties are those discussed. Some of them may lead to various kinds of mistakes, the types of error being more numerous than the causes. Each process should receive adequate instruction to prevent the development of inappropriate devices upon which pupils rely when they are not provided with the means of overcoming the difficulties that all problem solving involves.

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THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL¹

The most controversial element in secondary education is the program of studies. The extension of educational opportunity to all who might wish to take advantage of it has resulted in tremendous increases in the size of the enrollments. The influx of children of varying ability has ruled out preparation for college as the exclusive aim. Courses have been introduced which have for their objective the needs of those whose education must of necessity be completed when they have fulfilled the requirements of the secondary school. The trend is towards a greater diversification of instruction and as a result teachers and administrators are confronted with the task of constructing a suitable curriculum. When mere substitution and addition of courses did not remedy the situation, the idea of out-of-class activities gained favor, and their advocates claim that if the subject-matter courses cannot accomplish the purpose of the high school, other means must be employed.

By bringing up to date the curriculum studies of earlier investigations the National Survey of Secondary Education reveals strikingly the changes that have been made in the curriculum of the secondary school. The tendency to offer a great variety of nonacademic courses indicates that the secondary school is attempting to provide equally for the pupil preparing for college and the pupil who will not enjoy the privilege of higher education. That students trained exclusively in pure academic subjects are better equipped to pursue studies on a college level than those whose training was in part composed of nonacademic subjects is no longer maintained. As a matter of fact a limited amount of nonacademic training may be construed as cultural in so far as it contributes to the development of the full man.

Another definite tendency revealed in the study of the curriculum shows plainly that when students are no longer compelled to pursue certain courses, election of other subjects is frequently based upon utility. The student does not elect disagreeable and uninteresting courses whose value is doubtful, but will pursue studies that he believes will be useful in the field in which he plans

¹This is the fourth and final of a series of articles on the National Survey of Secondary Education.

to earn a livelihood even though these courses may require intellectual labor. This shift in preference for certain practical courses cannot be interpreted to mean that the pupil is merely seeking the easiest way out and that he will elect those subjects which require a minimum of mental effort.

The expansion of secondary school curricula can also be attributed to the fact that the "cardinal principles" are redirecting high school instruction. It was quite difficult to modify traditional courses so that definite values—health, citizenship, command of fundamental processes, use of leisure time, worthy home membership, ethical character, and vocational efficiency—could be derived. As a consequence new and different courses were introduced to supplement those established by tradition. Instruction in the traditional courses also was modified in a manner which would enable the pupils to realize a fuller life. Traditional courses which were unable to give students tangible values consequently lost in popularity.

THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES ²

The purpose of the Monograph is to present trends in curricular offerings in the secondary schools. To accomplish this purpose it was necessary to rely upon earlier studies and to collect data for earlier periods, and compare these with the findings reported in 1930. Eleven different, although related, investigations are used in order to arrive at the conclusions. It should be noted that comparisons are made in identical schools, and therefore, the tendencies indicated are based upon actual changes made in a given school over a period of years.

Five investigations at the junior high school level were made. (1) In order to determine the trends in junior high school curricula over a 10-year period the following procedure was employed: "In May, 1930, a letter was sent to more than 500 superintendents of public schools in cities reported in the literature of the period as having had a junior high school organization previously to 1920. Each of these superintendents was requested to send a printed or mimeographed copy of the junior high school program of studies in use in that city during the earlier period, together with a copy of the present program." From the 185

²Loomis, A. K., Lide, Edwin S., and Johnson, B. Lamar, *The Program of Studies*. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 19. Pp. 340. 15 cents.)

replies received, 60 were selected because they contained most complete information concerning the program of studies. (2) In 1923 the Commonwealth Fund sponsored an investigation of 14 junior high school programs. The data collected by James M. Glass was utilized and a comparison was made with present practices in these same schools. (3) Recently revised junior and senior high school programs of study formed another basis of comparison. Programs from 39 schools were studied and the changes revealed are "representative of what schoolmen regard as outstanding revisions which were made within the 5-year period" (1926-1931). (4) A comparison of programs before and after reorganization on the junior high school plan was made in 36 schools. These changes in organization were made during the 1926-1931 period. (5) The program of studies in grades 7, 8, and 9 in reorganized and unreorganized schools formed another basis of comparison.

Trends revealed by these five studies are similar and, therefore, a single report is sufficient:

1. When total offerings are considered there is a tendency to provide a greater variety of courses for the noncollege-going pupil, and consequently, nonacademic subjects (fine and practical arts, commercial subjects, and physical education) show a gain in number of periods of work. This gain is frequently at the expense of academic subjects. "Trends indicative of decreased emphasis on college preparation include greater representation of the nonacademic fields, reduced emphasis on mathematics and foreign languages, and the introduction of more meaningful materials followed by the elimination of some courses that have held place largely through tradition." Social studies are the only academic courses which show any appreciable increase in the total offering. In grades 7 and 8 there is a definite decrease in the offerings in foreign languages and commerce.

2. More emphasis is placed on "socializing-integrative" activities, that is, "Clubs," "Guidance," "Home-room," "Assembly," and "Manners and conduct." These activities are increasingly scheduled as parts of the regular school day and are required in about one-third of all the schools.

3. There is a distant tendency to prescribe courses and limit the free choice of electives. In the seventh and eighth grades 90 per cent and in the ninth grade 55 per cent of the time is devoted to the courses which are required. An examination of the required

courses reveals that the largest gains are shown by social studies, physical education, and the socializing-integrative activities. Science courses show smaller gains. In grades 7 and 8 English, social studies, mathematics, and physical education are required in almost all schools; fine arts, industrial arts, and home economics are required in 66 per cent of the schools; and science is required in about 50 per cent. In grade 9 English is the only course required by all schools; social science, mathematics, and science, by approximately 50 per cent of the schools; fine arts, by 33 per cent; and industrial arts and home economics, by 16 per cent.

4. There is a general tendency to substitute courses of a general nature for specialized courses. Formerly, such courses as "grammar," "penmanship," "reading," "spelling," "composition," and "literature" were listed in the program of studies; now these courses appear merely as "English." "United States history," "civics," "current events," and "geography," are now reported as "social studies." In the new programs, more courses of an applied nature are found; namely, "library," "public speaking," "journalism," and "dramatics."

5. When the program of studies of the unreorganized school is compared with that of the reorganized school even greater differences are noted. Reorganized schools usually place emphasis upon physical education, industrial arts, home economics, and socializing-integrative activities; in addition, these schools offer more generalized, exploratory, and practical courses.

Five studies of programs from senior and 4-year high schools were made. "Four of the studies dealt with the public high schools and one with private high schools. The four groups of public high-school programs were received from 152, 35, 15, and 39 cities, respectively, representing changes over respective periods of 16, 25, 6, and 5 years. The programs were from schools in cities of varying size and location." The 26 private schools selected for this study indicated significant revisions within the past five years.

Following are some of the trends revealed: (1) There is an increase in the number of curriculums offered. "The word 'curriculum' is here used in the sense of a schematic arrangement of courses (or subjects) designed to meet the needs of some particular group of pupils." The median number of curriculums offered increased from 2.5 in 1906 to 5.2 in 1930. During this

interval the proportion of college preparatory curriculums has decreased, while the proportion of general, fine arts, and practical arts curriculums has increased. (2) The total number of courses offered has increased from 53 in 1906 to 306 in 1930. The average number of courses per school rose during this interval from 23.7 to 48.1. These increments are far greater in nonacademic than in the academic fields. (3) The early practice required strictly college preparatory subjects of all pupils for graduation. In 1930 only English, American history, and physical education were required by 50 per cent of the schools; algebra, by 45.7 per cent; geometry, by 34.3 per cent; social studies (aside from American history) variously required in from 5 to 27 per cent of the schools; no other subject was required by as many as 10 per cent of all schools. The average school now requires a little more than half of all the work. (4) Revision of private school programs indicates trends somewhat similar to those pointed out for public schools with the exception that, "the organization of grades is in almost all cases on the traditional 8-4 plan; increments are greatest for commerce, with a slight decrease for social studies and the industrial arts; the amount of work required in physical education has decreased, and the amount of work required in foreign language has increased slightly. Courses in religion are required of all pupils in about one-third of the schools." The greatest changes, as a result of revision, are noted in the increase of elective work.

Comparison of the trends at the junior and senior high school levels reveals that the total offering has increased at the upper level but decreased at the lower. The offering of "general" courses may account for the numerical reduction. At the upper level instruction must be given in isolated fields as long as the Carnegie unit is used as a high school counter for credit. At the lower level the social-integrative activities are stressed more.

The remaining study reported in this group is concerned with the actual operation of the program of studies. Comparison of the percentage distribution of the work taken by high school graduates in 1930 with the percentage distribution in the same school at an earlier period shows that: (1) English has gained steadily since 1900, and over a 30-year period shows a rise from 12 per cent to about 21 per cent of the work taken in the high school. (2) Social studies show a smaller gain over a 40-year period; the increment is represented by a rise from 11 per cent to 16 per cent of the total work taken by graduates. (3) Foreign

languages show the greatest decrease, a drop from 38.7 per cent to 17.6 per cent being noted. Mathematics shows a smaller loss, a drop from 16 per cent in 1890 to 13.5 per cent in 1930 is reported by identical schools. Science also shows a decrease in popularity; over a 40-year period the decline is from 17.7 per cent to 10 per cent. In 1890 only 3.6 per cent of the work taken by the high school graduates was in the nonacademic field; a steady increase over the 40-year period is shown and in 1930 it represented 21.2 per cent of all the work taken by the graduates.

In general, curriculum revision follows closely the shift in the concept of the aim of the high school. The secondary school is no longer considered merely as a college preparatory institution. Advocates of curriculum reform rejoice that the modern secondary school through the diversification of offering makes easier the recognition of many more aspects of complete living than were possible under the older offering. However, it may be difficult to reconcile the fact that while we are living in this "age of science," the secondary school program makes fewer provisions in that subject field now than it did forty years ago.

PROCEDURES IN CURRICULUM MAKING ³

The purpose of this Monograph is not to enter into the reasons for curriculum revision but merely to report the procedures in curriculum construction and revision. The study reports practices in curriculum making on a city-wide, county-wide, and a state-wide scale. One chapter is devoted to a consideration of the influence of central agencies on curriculum making.

The first step in a typical procedure in curriculum making requires that the superintendent or principal "secure cooperation and interest of his staff through faculty meetings and publicity through the local press and parent-teacher associations. The central office would determine the membership of committees, and although criteria would not be applied objectively, professional training and success in teaching would enter largely into the choice. Teachers would be trained for revision work through faculty meetings, and literature would be provided through a centrally organized library. Meetings would be held whenever called by the chairman, but teachers would not be excused from regular duties for this purpose."

³ Lide, Edwin S., *Procedures in Curriculum Making*. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 18. Pp. 99. 10 cents.)

Frequently outside agencies are called upon to serve in an advisory capacity. The State university, the State department, teachers associations, curriculum specialists, specific subject field specialists, and laymen cooperate in curriculum building. However, the actual work is conducted by the central or administrative committee.

When a tentative course of study is constructed in a city system the following procedures are reported by 132 schools: (1) No provision is made for tryout in 22 schools; (2) teachers criticize without tryout, 48 schools; (3) experimental classes, 35; (4) tryout of tentative course by all teachers, 80; (5) tryout by selected teachers, 2 schools.

Results of instruction in the new courses are most frequently appraised informally by the administrative and supervisory staff. When formal appraisal is made standardized tests, specially prepared tests, or the questionnaire may be employed.

Specific evaluations of the various practices were sought and these are reported in the study. In addition, a general evaluation concerning the revision program was requested of the respondents. Some of the conclusions and recommendations most frequently mentioned are: (1) Preliminary to launching the program, more thorough instruction of the teachers is needed and more careful study of local needs must be made. (2) Desirability of participation by as many teachers as possible, need for care in selecting a well-trained group for committees, and need for relieving participants of some of the regular duties are mentioned. (3) Teachers for practical work and outside agencies in an advisory capacity insure quality of service. (4) Lack of teacher training, lack of money, lack of time by teachers with other duties, college entrance requirements, lack of objective data, and lack of educational philosophy are mentioned as factors preventing the making of an ideal curriculum. (5) Benefits of a general nature include, professional growth of teachers and better courses of study. (6) Suggestions of a general nature are made and the respondents point out that continuous revision is an indispensable basis of procedure, that more adequate provision for testing and research be made, that more time be allowed, and that complete responsibility be vested in a permanent curriculum staff. The most emphatic suggestion is that the service of a capable director is essential.

INSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL SUBJECT-MATTER FIELDS

Attention is merely called to a series of monographs which deal with certain subject groups. The monographs in question are:

20. *Instruction in English*. Dora V. Smith.
21. *Instruction in the Social Subjects*. William G. Kimmel.
22. *Instruction in Science*. Wilbur L. Beauchamp.
23. *Instruction in Mathematics*. Edwin S. Lide.
24. *Instruction in Foreign Languages*. Helen M. Eddy.
25. *Instruction in Music and Art*. Anne E. Pierce and Robert S. Hilpert.

In these reports are found valuable data concerning plans, practices, devices, teaching techniques, and the like. Information concerning the various teaching procedures was secured in part from statements found in the courses of study, but principally through observation of classroom teaching. Another valuable contribution found in these monographs is the analysis of course outlines prepared and published since 1925. A total of 772 courses were examined. The findings of the analyses relate to the names of courses, major influences, objectives, content, tests, and provisions for individual differences.

NONATHLETIC EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES ⁴

Opinion is divided on the question of the need and importance of extracurriculum activities as a necessary adjunct to American secondary education. The claim that extra-class activities are a more potent factor than "legitimate" materials of instruction in the development of the moral citizen is challenged by those who brand these activities as mere "side-shows." No scientific study has been made to prove or disprove either charge.

The investigation considers (1) the development of activities in four schools over a period of years; (2) current practices in 224 schools; (3) programs of 606 individual activities in 24 selected schools; (4) interscholastic nonathletic contests in the group of 224 selected schools; and (5) relation of activities in high school and subsequent activities and interests.

⁴Reaves, William C., and Van Dyke, George E. *Nonathletic Extracurriculum Activities*. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1932, No. 17, Monograph No. 26. Pp. 174. 15 cents.)

Unbroken files of high school annuals furnished the data for the 18-year period. Greatest growth during this period was experienced by the "Civic, moral, and honorary" group (560 per cent), and "Avocational activities" (533 per cent). "Subject, musical, literary, and teams" increased 155 per cent, and "Publication" increased only 44 per cent in the same period. "Social activities" lost 20 per cent. While the ratio of the number of activities to the enrollment of the four schools did not change materially during this period, the pupils were provided with a much greater variety of activities. A total of 391 different activities were provided during the years 1900-1930 for which records were available. The average life of these activities was 6.8 years, and the median life was 4.4 years.

On the basis of information secured from 224 schools a group of 24 were selected for special study. Personal visits were employed in order to secure information. The clubs were classified into: (1) Student government, school service, and honorary organizations; (2) social, moral, leadership, and guidance clubs; (3) departmental or subject clubs; (4) publications and journalistic organizations; (5) dramatic clubs, literary societies, and forensic activities; (6) musical organizations; and (7) special-interest or hobby clubs. While the aims and purposes of extracurriculum activities, even in outstanding schools, very often are not clearly defined, the following purposes were most frequently claimed by the 606 organizations: More than half of the organizations claimed that they "extend pupils' interests in specific activities, the interests already having been aroused"; one-third claimed that they "arouse pupils' interests in specific activities"; and a third claimed that they "provide desirable means of utilizing leisure time under school direction." The Survey notes that "the data clearly indicate a need for the broadening of the purposes of the extracurriculum activities in most of the schools."

The programs of activities does not always show an even distribution. In one school 67 per cent of the clubs were of the departmental type, while in another only 3.7 per cent were of this type. Hobby clubs occupied 66 per cent of the extra-class program in one school while in another only 5.9 per cent of activities were of this sort. The average life of clubs included in the investigation is approximately 5 years. Credit for participation in extracurriculum activities was granted in relatively few cases.

Fewer than 30 per cent of the clubs have adopted formal constitutions for guidance of their organizations. In most of the clubs the sponsors secure their positions through appointment by the principals of the schools. The English department furnishes a larger number of sponsors than any other single department; next in order of prominence are the social science department, and the mathematics department. Time devoted to the work of sponsoring varies with the activities the range in averages being from 2.5 hours per week for hobby clubs to 13 hours for the publication organizations.

Interscholastic nonathletic activities were reported by 70 per cent of the 224 schools studied. A total of 30,782 pupils (about 30 per cent of the enrollment of the schools) practiced for 575 contests in 32 activities. During the same year (1929-30) 10,202 pupils actually participated in 467 contests. "The ten activities offering the benefits of practice and participation to the largest number of pupils were, in order of frequency, health clubs, glee clubs, publications, choruses, scholarship contests, oratory, bands, debates, spelling contests, and essay contests. The activities providing least participation in practice and contests were chemistry contests, stock judging, musical readings, dramatics, 4-H contests, small instrument ensembles, stenography, commercial contests, typewriting, and manual arts."

The evaluation of extracurriculum activities by adults may be an index of the true worth and value of such activities. Data secured from 529 graduates of a private secondary school, and from 293 graduates of a public high school indicate that there is a definite carry-over from the secondary school to college and adult life. Similarity of participation between high school and adult life was 31.2 per cent; between high school and college life it was 42 per cent. The activities having the greatest carry-over influence from high school to college life were athletics (76.5 per cent), literary activities (44.2), and music (39.1). The greatest carry over from secondary school to community was found in service activities (59.4 per cent), literary activities (52.9), and religious activities (36.1).

A list of 14 questions calling for positive and negative responses concerning specific effects accruing from participation in activities was submitted to three different groups of individuals: (1) Members of Kiwanis, Lions, and Rotary Clubs in cities adja-

cent to Chicago; (2) graduate students in educational administration; and (3) graduates of a large public high school ranging in date of graduation from 1911 to 1927. "The responses revealed a strong consensus of opinion in support of extracurriculum activities as a necessary part of secondary education. The few negative reactions received carry a warning to administrative officers in secondary schools not to take values for granted, but through successful organization and administration to provide substantial programs of activities and to meet the problems which militate against the successful realization of inherent values."

The publication of the Summary (Monograph No. 1) concludes one of the most extensive surveys ever attempted in the field of secondary education. It is evident that this survey will prove useful to every person interested in secondary education. In all cases only innovations and unusual practices are reported; this procedure, however, does not detract from the importance of the investigation. One notes the variety of practices reported by schools located in different sections of the country, a condition which is possible since in the absence of centralized control, local preference and experimentation determine the policies of the school. Thus the secondary school in the United States responds to the demands of folk-life and is not the creation of government.

The reports are invaluable for the purpose of comparison. If the teacher or administrator finds the local conditions at variance with the generally accepted practice revealed by the survey, he may wish to determine the cause of such a variation; and here, too, the plan followed by the survey may serve as a model for his investigation. When many schools find a certain practice feasible and useful there is no reason why a school similarly situated may not consider its value.

Condemnation of innovations in teaching practice as "fads" and "frills" is not always justified. The fact that the reports call attention to innovations of one kind or other and the degree of popularity and success they have achieved may be of value in aiding the public to make some kind of an objective judgment concerning certain departures from the traditional in American secondary education.

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EDUCATIONAL NOTES

TERCENTENARY CELEBRATION IN BALTIMORE

Approximately 100,000 persons formed the congregation in the Baltimore Stadium on Memorial Day when the Catholics of Maryland and surrounding states and communities marked in a signal way the Tercentenary of the Founding of Maryland and paid tribute to His Eminence James Cardinal Gibbons, former Archbishop of Baltimore, and one of the greatest figures of the last and present century in this country, the centennial of whose birth occurs this year.

With His Excellency the Most Rev. Amleto Giovanni Cicognani, Apostolic Delegate to the United States, presiding, and several members of the Hierarchy present, the Most Rev. Michael J. Curley, Archbishop of Baltimore, celebrated the pontifical High Mass in the stadium in thanksgiving for the blessings conferred by God upon the Catholic Church in the Archdiocese of Baltimore and in the United States in the 300 years since Father Andrew White, S.J., celebrated Mass for the first time in what is now Maryland.

With hundreds of members of various Catholic societies in the archdiocese, parochial school children, parishioners from all over the See, and others from different sections of surrounding Maryland present at the great religious demonstration, the celebration ranked as one of the most outstanding Catholic events in this country in many years.

RELIGIOUS VACATION SCHOOLS

About 10,000 teachers and assistants will be engaged in religious vacation school activities this summer, according to information received at the Rural Life Bureau of the National Catholic Welfare Conference. It is estimated that 250,000 children will be enrolled.

This enrollment figure will be reached, information received by the bureau indicates, and it will mark the usual annual growth of the movement. Vacation school preparations in cities show an ever-increasing effort is being made to reach the children

who attend public schools and to bring the benefits of this systematic instruction to those who attend parochial schools during the regular school term.

The vacation school is now well established in Canada and is found on a somewhat smaller scale in several United States dependencies.

"In spite of an annual noteworthy growth of the vacation school movement in this country," a statement issued by the Rural Life Bureau said, "there is still crying need for many more of these schools. Little more than half of the Catholic children are in parochial schools and many of those attending the public schools get little or no systematic religious instruction. A recent careful estimate made in one of the larger Catholic urban centers showed that only about 30 per cent of the children there attended parish schools. Nor is there any valid reason why the vacation school should not find a place even where Catholic schools are very well established. In view of their undoubted benefits and of the small financial outlay that they require, such a goal should not remain an idle dream.

"Referring to the Denver Diocese, the Rev. F. Gregory Smith says that 'it has been conclusively demonstrated that, while the vacation school is financially possible for the small parish or mission, there is no parish too large or too well equipped to reap the benefit of this extension of our parochial school system. It is not unwarranted optimism to predict that within the next five years every parish and mission in the diocese will be conducting a vacation school each year as a normal part of its parish service.'

"The *Manual of Religious Vacation Schools* of the Rural Life Bureau is still almost universally the guide of the teachers in this work. It is not to be revised this year."

QUOTATIONS OF INTEREST

Patriotism in Catholic Colleges

The Rev. Dr. Joseph Thorning, S.J., professor of Sociology and acting dean of the Graduate School at Georgetown University, Washington, in an address delivered May 20 over the Paulist Fathers' Station WLWL, New York, commended the patriotism which he said is to be found on the campuses of Catholic colleges and emphasized that Catholic advocates of peace, on the whole,

believe "in the right of self-defense, both for the individual citizen and for the nation."

Declaring that "in this matter of peace, there is question of emphasis," Dr. Thorning said that most members of the Catholic Association for International Peace "do desire to emphasize . . . not only the undeniable right of self-defense, but the obligation which devolves upon citizens and upon the nation conscientiously to fulfill all those conditions which alone justify an appeal to force in the settlement of international disputes."

"Can any well-informed person contend," he asked, "that Catholic moralists, pastors, teachers or theologians have failed adequately to inculcate a profound love of country and the duty of defending the nation against any unjust aggression on the part of a foreign power as well as against any insidious, subversive agitation on the part of domestic agitators? While radical pacifist and communistic groups flourish unmolested in the shadow of our great state universities and privately endowed schools, do you ever hear of conscientious objectors at Georgetown University, Fordham, Marquette, Notre Dame or St. Louis? Have not the students in these institutions received some of the highest ratings attainable for the efficiency of their R.O.T.C. units and other activities connected with the national defense? Can the most captious critic contend that our Catholic youth have signed any number of petitions, declaring, like the motion voted overwhelmingly by the members of the Oxford Union at Oxford University, England, that the signatories would 'never again fight for King and Country.'? There are no Communist youth cells known to exist on the campuses of our Catholic institutions of learning, nor do the Faculty members connive at any student sniping at the legitimate defense measures undertaken by the United States War Department. Consequently, it is fair to conclude that, generally speaking, Catholics have thoroughly grasped the obligations of citizenship as to the just defense of the national interests. Perhaps the whole-hearted patriotism of our Catholic people was never given better expression than by the Archbishops and Bishops of the Third Plenary Council of Baltimore:

"Should the inheritance of freedom left us by our country's heroes be imperilled, our Catholic citizens will be found to stand forward, as one man, ready to pledge anew their lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor.'"

Continuing, Dr. Thorning cited the conditions, "which sound ethics and Christian morality demand must be fulfilled before recourse may be had to the bloody arbitrament of war." One of these conditions, he said, is "the necessity of exploring every peaceful means of settlement in a case where the rights of two nations appear to be in conflict." He declared that war is a serious responsibility and that impulse, impatience, haste, and passion "have precipitated all too many cases of armed conflict." Recourse to processes of arbitration, he said, "might have postponed, if not averted, the World War."

Dr. Thorning scored "propaganda" as one of the chief factors in firing public hatred and fanaticism, declaring that "in proportion as blind, unreasoning, fanatical hatred, deliberately fostered and intensified, becomes inseparable from the conduct of modern war, to that extent does the ethical justification of such a war become more and more a matter of grave doubt."

"Among nations, as among individuals," he concluded, "there should be a less vehement assertion of rights and a wider, a more intelligent and a more conscientious recognition of duties. Only in that way will we achieve the correct perspective on the ethical principles which should motivate our thinking on the obligations of peace and the moral evils which attend the physical violence let loose by war."

Instrumental Music in the Schools

In a booklet published by the National Bureau for the Advancement of Music, Mr. C. M. Tremaine, Director, gives some interesting figures on the study of instrumental music. In part he says:

"It has been variously estimated that there are between 18,000 and 25,000 school bands and between 35,000 and 45,000 school orchestras, depending upon how small a group may be dignified by the name orchestra. If we take 21,000 as a conservative figure for the number of bands and 38,000 as the number of orchestras, and estimate the average size of the total number of bands as 32, and of orchestras as 20-22, we would have an aggregate of 672,000 members of school bands and 836,000 members of school orchestras, or a total of 1,508,000. The total figures might run considerably beyond this. From the above figures

should be deducted the number participating in both bands and orchestras, but there are, of course, a great many students in instrumental classes of various kinds, and in small ensembles, who are members of neither bands nor orchestras. When we add the very large number of children in the beginning stages of instrumental study and those in piano, violin and other special classes, the total number studying instrumental music in the public schools might reasonably be estimated as over two million."

SURVEY OF THE FIELD

Catholic students of institutions in Washington participated in a Mothers' Day program, May 13, on the campus of the Catholic University of America. The ceremonies were dedicated to the Blessed Virgin as the Universal Mother. It is estimated that 10,000 persons attended. . . . The annual May Fair at St. Joseph's College, Emmitsburg, Md., was a celebration of the one hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary of the institution, which was founded by Mother Elizabeth Seton. The World Fair held by the students took on an international character since the various booths were tended by girls representing various nations—China, Germany, France, Spain, Ireland. . . . The Rev. Joseph F. Butler, O.S.F.S., who has just been elected Provincial of the Oblates of St. Francis de Sales in the United States, has for the past two years been Superior of De Sales Hall, Scholasticate of the Oblates of St. Francis de Sales in Washington. . . . Motion pictures are low on the list of student diversions at Villanova College, according to a survey made by the Catholic Press Apostolate of that institution. Under the heading of recreation, sports are listed as the most popular, both at home and at college, according to the investigation. "Movies" are eighth on the list as a recreation for students both at home and at college. Much more popular than "movies," the survey shows, are reading, walking, and dancing. . . . St. Michael's College, Santa Fe, N. Mex., conducted by the Brothers of the Christian Schools, marked its diamond jubilee in conjunction with the reunion of the institution's alumni association, May 26-28. The Christian Brothers opened St. Michael's College in the episcopate of the Most Rev. J. B. Lamy, first Ordinary of the See of Santa Fe and known as "The Apostle of the Southwest." When Bishop Lamy came

to the southwest he saw an urgent need for schools and churches, since at the time of the Mexican Independence all the Spanish priests were ordered to leave Mexico. In 1851 he brought the Sisters of Loretto to Santa Fe and eight years later the Christian Brothers opened their school. For more than 30 years it was the only school in New Mexico which offered more than an elementary education. . . . Sister Mary Leo Tierney has died at St. Clara Convent in the eighty-second year of her life and her fifty-sixth year in religion. She was the last of a group of nuns who taught in the Immaculate Conception School at Faribault, Minn., under the late Archbishop Ireland's "Faribault Plan," which attracted wide notice in the 1890s. Sister Mary Leo, a member of the Dominican Order, served as principal of the Sacred Heart Academy, Washington, D. C.; St. Agnes' Academy, Oshkosh; St. Raphael's Academy, Madison; St. Mary's Convent, Appleton; St. John's Cathedral Convent, Milwaukee, and St. Jarlath's Convent, Chicago. She received her master's degree from the Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C. . . . The University of Delaware on May 12, on the occasion of its centennial celebration, conferred the honorary degree, Doctor of Laws, upon the Rev. Dr. Edmund A. Walsh, S.J., vice-president of Georgetown University and regent of the Georgetown University School of Foreign Service. . . . The nineteenth annual conference of the National Federation of College Catholic Clubs will be held at Jacksonville, Fla., September 2, 3 and 4, it has been announced. . . . Mrs. Blanche Val McGuire Keating, a graduate of the National Catholic School of Social Service at Washington, D. C., has been named State Director of Social Service for Texas with headquarters at Austin. . . . The Very Rev. Harold J. Ring, S.J., has been named president of the University of San Francisco, succeeding the Very Rev. William I. Lonergan, S.J. The Rev. Edward J. Whelan, S.J., Superior of the Retreat House at Los Altos, Cal., has been named to succeed Father Ring as rector of Loyola High School, Los Angeles, and Father Whelan in turn has been succeeded by the Rev. Edwin A. McFadden, S.J. . . . The annual meeting of the National Conference of Catholic Charities and the Society of St. Vincent de Paul will be held in Cincinnati, Ohio, October 7 to 10. The meeting, originally scheduled to be held in Richmond, was trans-

ferred to this city at the invitation of the Most Rev. John T. McNicholas, Archbishop of Cincinnati, because of the illness of the Most Rev. Andrew James Brennan, Bishop of Richmond. . . . A bill introduced by Representative John J. Douglass, of Boston, Mass., providing a fund of \$75,000,000 to be used by the Government in assisting the educational institutions of the various States during the school year 1934-35 has been reported favorably by unanimous vote of the Education Committee of the House of Representatives. Described as an emergency measure to meet the "crisis in education," the bill provides that funds shall be allocated in such a manner as will "assist in the maintenance of schools of less than college grade on a basis as satisfactory as possible." "Nothing in this act," it is stated, "shall be construed to empower any Federal officer to control the instruction or administration in education in any State." "Nothing in this act," it further provides, "shall be construed to prevent the distribution of funds, upon application, to privately supported free-tuition schools in need." "This Act," the bill concludes, "shall be for one year only, the fiscal year ending June 30, 1935, and shall be an emergency-aid measure, and in no sense shall it be considered as the beginning of any permanent policy of the Federal Government to assist the States in education." . . . The Rev. Dr. W. Coleman Nevils, S.J., president of Georgetown University, has just been honored by Belgium in the bestowal upon him of the Order of Leopold II. The presentation was made by His Excellency M. Paul May, Ambassador of Belgium to the United States. The honor has been given to Dr. Nevils for his contribution to better knowledge of Belgium in the United States and his preeminent position in education. . . . Robert A. Weppner, Jr., 27 years old, a graduate student in the School of Architecture at the Catholic University of America in Washington, was declared the winner of the Rome Prize in Architecture. This award, valued at \$4,000, is given in an annual competition sponsored by the American Academy in Rome. It entitles the winner to \$1,450 a year for two years and free residence and studio at the American Academy in Rome. . . . The Rev. Dr. George F. Strohaber, S.J., dean of the Georgetown University College of Arts and Sciences, noted preacher and prominent scientist, died May 18 at the age of 48 after a week's illness. . . . More than

400 Catholic school children of the Archdiocese of Chicago have received free treatment through the eye clinic of the Loyola University School of Medicine in the first three months of its existence, it was announced by the Rev. Terence H. Ahearn, S.J., regent of the school. . . . The Rev. Dr. George Johnson of the Catholic University of America, Secretary General of the National Catholic Educational Association, has been elected Secretary of the American Council on Education, it has just been announced. Dr. George F. Zook, former United States Commissioner of Education, has been elected Director of the American Council on Education, to succeed Dr. C. R. Mann, it was also announced. At the same time, Secretary of the Interior Ickes made public the acceptance of Dr. Zook's resignation as Commissioner of Education, effective July 1. He also made public the selection of Dr. John Ward Studebaker, Superintendent of Schools of Des Moines, to succeed Dr. Zook as Commissioner of Education. . . . Sister Frances Helen, Superioress of the Immaculata Seminary, Washington, D. C., and noted educator, died May 20 in Washington after an illness of two weeks. The funeral was held at the motherhouse of the Sisters of Providence at St. Mary-of-the-Woods, Ind.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

Crucifying Christ in Our Colleges, by Dan Gilbert. San Francisco: Alex. Dulfer Printing Co., 1933. Pp. 260.

Here we have fourteen case studies of how the teachings of some of the professors in the universities maintained by the taxes of the people have ruined and are ruining the characters of "the seed corn" of the future. The author has collected in these two hundred and fifty-odd pages facts that are, to say the least, thought-provoking. One sets this book down with the desire to cry out against the murderous deed of Cain. Each case selected by the author himself or in collaboration with students of four state universities shows the student at the beginning of his course to have been a believer in and a follower of the moral teaching which had its basis in religion, and after one or two years of college life to have become an apostle of the so-called new morality with its consequent effects on their lives and characters.

Every Catholic pastor should read this treatise despite its disheartening effects. Here he will find an abundance of matter that will aid him in pointing out to fathers and mothers, the God-appointed guardians of our Catholic youth, the sad, serious and sure effects of an education with religion left out of the process.

In sharp contrast to the picture sketched in these pages stands the philosophy and purpose of our Catholic schools built and maintained by no other force than the love and sacrifice of our Catholic people. As Our Holy Father Pius XI in his Encyclical on the Christian Education of Youth so pertinently states, "In such a school, in harmony with the Church and the Christian family, the various branches of secular learning will not enter into conflict with religious instruction to the manifest detriment of education. And if, when occasion arises, it be deemed necessary to have the students read authors propounding false doctrine, for the purpose of refuting it, this will be done after due preparation and with such an antidote of sound doctrine, that it will not only do no harm, but will be an aid to the Christian formation of youth."

LEO L. McVAY.

The Library in the School, by Lucile F. Fargo. The American Library Association, Chicago, Illinois. Pp. 479. 1933. Price, \$3.00.

This is a revised edition of Miss Fargo's book published in 1928. It is a textbook intended for library school students, but, because it shows the place of the library in the school and the importance of the trained librarian, we wish that it might be read by the principal of each of our Catholic high schools.

The book is a comprehensive survey of library service from the elementary through the high school and discusses the function of the library, its personnel, organization, equipment, administration, etc. Certain material which was necessary in the original volume is omitted, while data not then available are incorporated. Three or four chapters have been partially or wholly rewritten, others cut or expanded, statistical data has been brought up to date, and a list of accredited library schools added.

Doubtless before the next edition at least one other Catholic name shall be added to this list.

Needless to say, there would be certain changes made in the Basic Book Collection in our Catholic libraries.

The true place of the school library is beginning to be appreciated among our own educators as is evidenced by the fact that we now have an active Catholic Library Association which publishes monthly *The Catholic Library World* and is responsible for the invaluable *Catholic Periodical Index*.

Our heritage is so rich that, if we but lived up to our history and our tradition, the finest libraries in the schools today would be in Catholic institutions.

AGNES COLLINS.

Facsimiles of Famous American Documents and Letters, arranged and edited by Edward C. Boykin. Blue Ribbon Books, Inc., New York, 1934. Price, \$2.00.

This portfolio of twenty-six facsimiles of portions of famous American documents and of invaluable letters accompanied by a well-considered pamphlet of descriptive and historical information should challenge the attention of youthful students of American history and their teachers who realize the importance of such illustrative material. Yet such facsimiles were never

before available for class purposes at a price range within the budget of any high school. Among the more important photograph reproductions are: the first page of Jefferson's original draft of the Declaration of Independence with the corrections and interpolations of John Adams and Benjamin Franklin; Washington's brief note to General Conway, who was made to shoulder all the ignominy of the "Conway Cabal," for he was an Irish Catholic and a foreigner; the unhappy Major André's appeal to Washington; Cornwallis's proposal to surrender his command at Yorktown; Lafayette's letter to Congress expressing his gratitude for a sword and a leave of absence; Washington's refusal of a subtle suggestion that he accept a crown; Aaron Burr's challenge to Alexander Hamilton, which ended in the death of the greatest secretary of the treasury prior to Andrew Mellon; Perry's announcement of his victory at Lake Erie; Francis Scott Key's draft of the "Star-Spangled Banner"; Monroe's paragraphs which became the Monroe Doctrine; John Howard Payne's "Home, Sweet Home"; Jackson's stand against South Carolinian disunionists; Beauregard's demand for the surrender of Fort Sumter; Robert E. Lee's decision to follow his State; Grant's call for the unconditional surrender of Fort Donelson; Stonewall Jackson's last message to General Lee; the Gettysburg Address; and Grant's honorable statement of terms to Lee and his brave forces at Appomattox.

This is a splendid array of inspiring documents around which much of America's history from 1776 to 1865 can be written. Some of the prints might well be framed and hung on the walls of classrooms, lest children fail to revere the accomplishments and traditions of the forefathers whose rugged individualism made this country what it has been.

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

Community Civics, by Samuel A. Abelow. New York: Globe Book Company, 1934.

Mr. Abelow, of the staff of the Julia Richman High School in New York City, has compiled a useful civics text with special reference to the administration of Metropolitan New York. Teachers and students of government in American high schools should know something about the government of our greatest

city lest they err in thinking that it is merely a machine-ruled, corrupt, un-American metropolis. A reading of newspapers is apt to give a false impression. Everything in New York is on a larger scale, even corruption. New York is always news; Flint, Michigan, is not. Investigations and political turnovers are more frequent in New York politics than in lesser American cities, where one party is dominant and where the same party controls both the city and the state. Corruption in New York is nationally advertised, whereas relatively it is probably no more prevalent than in smaller cities and towns about which one rarely reads in our daily journals. Its problems are tremendous, as the portal of America, as the financial capital, as the Americanization center of millions of immigrants, as a city of huge racial colonies, and as the transportation center of the East. The problems of New York are suggested in this little volume which no one can read without recognition that New York City does more for its citizens than any other city in the Union.

Children are educated at public expense from the primary grades through colleges, over a million of them by about 35,000 teachers. Outside of Washington, there is no similar array of libraries, museums, menageries, playgrounds, parks lectures, and concerts. In addition, the city indirectly aids innumerable private and denominational schools by tax-exemptions. The author has little to say about Catholic schools and nothing about religion, but he stresses the economic advantages of education. Several chapters note the services of the city in protecting the health and life of its citizens: water supply from reservoirs of which one is over a hundred miles away; transportation, marketing, and inspection of the food supply; disposal of waste and refuse; regulation and inspection of buildings; safeguarding tenants; slum-clearances; regulation of labor; prevention of child labor; workingmen's compensation; old age pensions; guarding lives, property, and health; welfare centers; medical inspection in schools; clinics and hospitalization for the poor; municipal lodging houses; fire fighting and prevention; and traffic regulation. No other city provides nickel transportation on surface cars, elevated cars, subways, and ferries. No city has a more effective civil service system. New York renders service, and many of these services and reforms were instituted under a Tammany régime.

Some of the evils in New York are those in a large concern. There is much of the inefficiency of a democracy. There are the struggles bred of freedom. There is the lethargy of citizens who fail in their duty as vigilant and interested share-holders in the city. In the last analysis, corruption of officials, graft, and mismanagement must be laid at the door of the sovereign people. Civic duties are above no man. And it is the sacred duty of every man and every organization to attack dishonesty in government and in business. And every group and element in the population should insist that its self-proclaimed representatives in politics be honorable men in private and public life.

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

Books Received

Educational

Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia. For the Year Ended July 31, 1933. Halifax, N. S.: Minister Public Works and Mines, King's Printer, 1934. Pp. 207.

Barclay, Vera: *Practical Psychology in Character Development.* New York: Sheed & Ward, 1934. Pp. xiii+190. Price, \$2.00.

Donnelly, Francis P., S.J.: *Principles of Jesuit Education in Practice.* New York: P. J. Kenedy & Sons. Pp. xiii+205. Price, \$2.00.

Mursell, James L.: *Human Values in Music Education.* New York: Silver, Burdett & Company, 1934. Pp. 388. Price, \$2.40.

Physical Education Syllabus. Book II. Elementary Schools. Albany: The University of the State of New York Press. Pp. 210.

Sánchez, D. Rufino Blanco y: *Bibliografía pedagógica del siglo XX.* 1900-1930. Vol. VI, VII, and VIII. Madrid: Librería y Casa editorial de Hernando, S. A. Arsenal, 11. Pp. 354; 234; 269. El precio del ejemplar es de 50 pesetas.

Syllabus in English for Secondary Schools. Graves 7-12. Albany: The University of the State of New York Press. Pp. 299.

Tuttle, Harold Saxe: *A Social Basis of Education.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1934. Pp. x+589. Price, \$3.00.

Textbooks

Baus, Manuel Tamayo y: *La Locura De Amor*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934. Pp. xxv+214. Price, \$1.00.

Crumley, Thomas, C.S.C.: *Logic*. Deductive and Inductive. Revised Edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934. Pp. 442. Price, \$2.40.

Foerster, Norman, Editor: *American Poetry and Prose*. Revised and Enlarged Edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934. Pp. xii+1482. Price, \$4.00.

Freilich, Aaron; Shanholt, Henry H.; and McCormack, Joseph P.: *Fusion Mathematics*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934. Pp. vii+600. Price, \$1.84.

Freilich, Aaron; Shanholt, Henry H.; and McCormack, Joseph P.: *Intermediate Algebra*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934. Pp. ix+406. Price, \$1.40.

Freilich, Aaron; Shanholt, Henry H.; and McCormack, Joseph P.: *Plane Trigonometry*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934. Pp. ix+293. Price, \$1.32.

Lake, Charles H.; Harley, Henry P.; and Welton, Louis E.: *Exploring the World of Science*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934. Pp. ix+692. Price, \$1.76.

Magoffin, Ralph V. D., and Duncalf, Frederic: *Ancient and Medieval History*. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1934. Pp. xviii+860. Price, \$2.24.

Veit, Benjamin, and Fox, Benedict: *Thinking, Speaking and Writing*. Eight books: Third year to Sixth year, incl. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company. Pp. 102 to 175. Price, \$0.56 to \$0.68.

General

De Grandmaison, Léonce, S.J.: *Jesus Christ*. His Person—His Message—His Credentials. Volume III. New York: Sheed & Ward, Inc., 1934. Pp. x+523. Price, \$3.50.

Hoffman, Ross J. S.: *Restoration*. New York: Sheed & Ward, 1934. Pp. x+205. Price, \$1.50.

Hollis, Christopher: *The Breakdown of Money*. An Historical Explanation. New York: Sheed & Ward, Inc., 1934. Pp. xxiii+232. Price, \$1.50.

Kean, Claude, O.F.M.: *Stock Charges Against The Bible*.

Adapted from the German of Tharcisius Paffrath, O.F.M. Franciscan Monastery, Paterson, N.J.: St. Anthony Guild Press, 1934. Pp. 140. Price, \$1.25.

The Lord's Prayer. Pictured by Ingri & Edgar Parin D'Aulaire. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc. Price, \$1.75.

The Mystical Doctrine of St. John of the Cross. An abridgment made by C. H. with an introduction by R. H. J. Steuart, S.J., New York: Sheed & Ward, Inc., 1934. Pp. xxxiii+213. Price, \$1.50.

Pamphlets

Manual of the Eucharistic Crusade. Compiled by Gregory C. Rybrook, O.Praem. West De Pere, Wis.: National Bureau of the Eucharistic Crusade, St. Norbert Abbey. Pp. 72.

McAuley, M. Faith, and Wood, Mary Adele: *Economies in Food.* Quantity Recipes Using Evaporated Milk. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. Pp. 49.

The Menace of Socialism. Being Chapters 85 to 88, inclusive, from "A New Federal Bill of Rights" by Charles Hall Davis. Washington: Grosvenor Dawe Associates, 209B Printercraft Building. Pp. 46.

Walde, Rev. John J.: *Radio Talks.* St. Louis, Mo.: The Queen's Work, 3742 West Pine Boulevard. Pp. 44. Price, \$0.10.